

HIGH SCHOOL
GRAMMAR

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THE HIGH SCHOOL
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE
HIGH SCHOOL
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

REVISED EDITION.

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PREFACE.

Since the first edition of this grammar was published in 1886, the Ontario High School course of study has been altered, and philological research has modified the views of English scholars on a number of subjects. The present work is intended to meet the existing conditions. It contains also the results of the criticisms and suggestions which the author has received from teachers who have used the old book.

Like the first edition, this one has been constructed in accordance with the view that, while English grammar is a science with important practical applications, it is, when properly studied, an intellectual discipline of the highest order. Like the first edition, also, this one is on an historical basis. Only on this basis can the structure of the language be intelligently explained. "Old English," as Prof. Skeat truly says, "is the right key to the understanding of Modern English, and those who will not use the key, will never open the book with all their fumbling." But, although many of the earlier forms and constructions are given, it is not intended that they should be memorized. Those which exhibit the main facts in the development of the language deserve especial consideration; the others have been introduced merely to illustrate statements which might otherwise be imperfectly understood. In accordance with the best pedagogical opinion, definitions have been omitted in this edition also. The so-called definitions in Section II. are summaries of the discussions rather than definitions of the once favored but mind-benumbing type.

It would be impracticable to note in a preface all the changes which have been found necessary to bring the book into line with modern scholarship and the present requirements of secondary education. One or two may, however, be pointed out. The treatment of mood has been simplified; for experience has shown that Whitney's scheme, which was followed in the first edition,

is not well suited for schools. In accordance with the wishes of many teachers, a large number of exercises have been provided, as well as lists of the most important prefixes, suffixes, and Latin and Greek root-words. The marginal notes, too, will be found useful not only in studying the text but in referring to the contents. It should be added that the terminology and the classifications of the old edition have been retained almost unchanged, but less prominence has been given to classification according to form.

The author returns his hearty thanks to the many High School teachers and other scholars who have helped him in his revision. He is, of course, wholly responsible for all that appears in the book, but he desires to acknowledge his especial indebtedness to Messrs. J. W. Connor, B.A.; J. E. Dickson, B.A.; A. Stevenson, B.A., and H. I. Strang, B.A., who not only criticized the proofs of all the text, but favored him with valuable assistance of various kinds.

The chief authorities consulted for the edition of 1886 were Maetzner's *English Grammar* and Lounsbury's *English Language*. In the preparation of the present edition, the following works have been used:

- (1). Burt's *Elementary Phonetics*;
- (2). Emerson's *History of the English Language*;
- (3). *Introduction to the Study of the History of Language*, by Strong, Logeman, and Wheeler: a work based upon Paul's *Prinzipien der Sprach-geschichte*;
- (4). Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*;
- (5). Kluge and Lutz's *English Etymology*;
- (6). Morris's *Historical Outlines of English Accidence*: revised by Kellner and Bradley;
- (7). Skeat's *Principles of English Etymology*: First and Second series;
- (8). Sweet's *A New English Grammar*: Parts I. and II.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

I.—INTRODUCTION.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1. The people from whom our language gets its name are those living in England; and, although English is now spoken by millions in many other parts of the world, its history as a language is confined almost wholly to England. Our forefathers came to that country from the lowlands in the north-western part of what is now called Germany, during the fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries of the Christian era, and destroyed or pushed back the Celts, who had lived there before and who spoke a language much like Welsh of the present day. The invaders belonged to three different tribes, known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes (or Frisians). History, however, leads us to believe that they were all of the Angle (or English) race, and that, with some slight differences they spoke the same language. This language is rightly called English; for they almost always called themselves *Engle*, and their language *Englisc*.

The origin of the English language, and of its name.

2. Because the English language was brought into England from the country now called Germany, being then like the other languages of that country, it is still like those now spoken there, and is, for this reason, often called a *Germanic* (or, which is the same thing, a *Teutonic*) language.

English, a Teutonic language belonging to the Low German division.

Of the Teutonic languages there are three great divisions, based upon their resemblances and differences:

Divisions of
the Teutonic
sub-family.

- (1) *Gothic*. This division is now extinct.
- (2) *Norse*, or *Scandinavian*. This is now represented by Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic.
- (3) *West Germanic*. This includes:
 - (a) *High German* (now known as New High German, the language of modern German literature), at first spoken only by that part of the Teutonic family which lived in the central *high* lands of Europe; and
 - (b) *Low German*, originally spoken by those who lived along the *low* lying shores of the Baltic and the North Sea. Here belong *Old English* (or *Anglo-Saxon*), the ancestor of *Modern English*; Old Saxon, now represented by Low German; Old Frisian, the modern form of which is spoken only in some of the islands off the coast of North Germany; and Old Franconian, spoken originally by the Franks who lived on the banks of the lower Rhine, and now represented chiefly by Dutch and Flemish.

English, also
one of the
Indo-Euro-
pean lan-
guages.

3. By comparing the languages and literatures of Europe and Asia, scholars have been able to show that all the Teutonic languages, along with nearly all the others in Europe and some of the most important in Asia, form a great body of languages resembling one another, and hence called a family. The existence of such resemblances can be accounted for only on the supposition that these are the languages of peoples whose ancestors once spoke the same tongue, and, consequently, must have formed one tribe, or kindred tribes who lived near one another. We have no historical records about this ancient race; but we are reasonably certain that they once existed, more than three thousand years ago; and that, at some remote periods in the history of the world, migrations took place, and, in this way, their descendants have become widely distributed from India westward to the Atlantic. These primitive people are now called *Arians*, the name given them by scholars (*Arian*, meaning "honorable," or "noble"). Where, however, their home was is by no means certain. Many scholars have, of late years, come to believe that it was

either near the southern shore of the Baltic, or, as seems more likely, about the Black Sea in Southern Russia. Many other scholars, however, still hold the old view that it was somewhere in the table-lands of Central Asia, between the Caspian and the Hindu-Kush Mountains.

The great family to which the Teutonic languages belong is, therefore, known as the *Indo-European* (or the *Arian*) family.

4. Besides the Teutonic sub-family, to which, as we have seen, English and German belong, there are a number of other divisions of the Indo-European family. Two of these are represented in our school courses—the *Italic* (or *Italian*) and the *Greek* (or *Hellenic*). The Italic division includes Latin, now no longer spoken, but seen in Cæsar or Virgil; and French, to which (as also to Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and one or two others) the name *Romanic* is given, as it is the descendant of the ancient Roman tongue. The Greek division includes modern and ancient Greek, the latter being now seen in Xenophon or Homer.

Other Indo-European sub-families : the Italic and the Greek.

5. The English we speak at the present day, is by no means the same language as formerly went by that name. When first brought from Northern Germany to England, the language was so different from ours that we should not understand it if we heard it spoken; and we must study it just as we do French or German, before we are able to read it. And a thousand years hence, if English live so long, it will probably be so unlike what it now is that we, if we were to come to life again, should perhaps not understand it without a good deal of trouble. The reason is that every *living* language is continually changing; so that the speech of each generation differs somewhat from that of the one before it. In the course of time, some old words go out of use; new words come into use; some change their meaning; all, or almost all, change their pronunciation; and the ways in which we put words together to express our thoughts become more or less changed

English, not the same language in all stages of its history.

by degrees. On the other hand, a language like Latin or ancient Greek, which is only written or printed and is not now spoken, no longer undergoes any change whatever, and is, consequently, known as a *dead* language.

We have a long series of works written by Englishmen in *Old English*, and going back as far as King Alfred's time or thereabouts. These enable us to find out how English has changed from time to time and how these changes are connected with many important events in the history of England.

Three great differences between Old and Modern English:

(1). Old English, synthetic; Mod. English, analytic.

6. The most striking difference between Old English and *Modern English*, the form of the language we now speak, is that Old English generally (though not so generally as Latin or Greek) expressed both the relations of words to one another in the sentences and certain modifications in their meanings by changes in the forms of the words themselves; whereas Modern English generally expresses such modifications and relations by means of separate words. In the following extracts the parts of the Old English words that have been changed to show differences of meaning or relation are italicized, as are also their Modern English equivalents when there are any:

OLD ENGLISH.

Thá ongan he leornigan on him selfum hú he thæt rice thám unrihtwísan cyninge aferran mihte, and on rihtgeléafulra and on rihtwísa anwald gebringan.—ÆLFRED'S *Boethius*.

And we béodath thæt man eard georne clænsian agynne, and mánfulra dæda æghwær geswíce.—CNUT'S *Laws*.

MODERN ENGLISH.

Then began he *to* learn in himself how he the kingdom *from* the unrighteous king remove might, and into the power (anwald = "wielding") of right believing and righteous (men) bring.

And we bid that men the earth earnestly to cleanse begin, and *from* sinful deeds everywhere ("aye—where") cease.

Accordingly, Old English is called a *synthetic* language (synthetic is from *synthesis*, which means "putting together") and Modern English, an *analytic*

language (analytic is from *analysis*, which means "separating into parts").

7. Another great difference is that Old English was, on the whole, an unmixed language; that is, with very few exceptions, all its words were English; whereas Modern English is one of the most *mixed* (or *composite*) languages in the world. The chief foreign element is the Italic. From this source we have two main classes of words—those that were introduced in vast numbers by the Normans, a French speaking people who conquered the English speaking people of England in the eleventh century; and those introduced *directly* from the Latin, since the Revival of Learning in the sixteenth century. The French of the Normans was a broken language, the descendant of the Latin brought into Gaul by the Romans when they ruled that country; so that most of our words, thus *indirectly* introduced from the Latin, are very much altered from the original. Thus, for example,

dower<*dotare*, aim<*aestimare*, tower<*turris*, safe<*salvus*,
chief<*caput*, fruit<*fructus*, gross<*crassus*, raisin<*racemus*.

The Latin words introduced since the Revival of Learning are, on the contrary, but slightly altered; so little, indeed, that one who knows Latin has no trouble in recognizing them. Thus, for example,

annals<*annales*, innocence<*innocentia*, audacious<*audax*,
alacrity<*alacritas*, penetrate<*penetratus*, celebrate<*celebratus*.

8. These two elements—the pure English and the Italic—constitute about ninety-five per cent. of our vocabulary. English contains also a few other words from the Latin, introduced into Old English by the early Roman invaders, the Roman missionaries, and writers of Old English who translated Latin works into their own language; words from other members of the Teutonic sub-family; a few words from the Celtic languages; words from the Greek, especially scientific terms introduced in modern times; and words from the languages of countries connected with England by trade, colonization, and so on.

(2). Old Eng-
lish,
unmixed;
Mod. Eng.,
composite.

Percentage
composition
of Modern
English.

(3). Great differences between the spelling and pronunciation of Old and of Modern English.

9. Besides the great differences in the character of the words and in the ways of expressing their relations and changes of meaning, there is also a marked difference between the spelling and pronunciation of Old and of Modern English. For a long time, indeed, every one in England tried to write his words as he pronounced them; sometimes, indeed, with different spellings of the same word in the same sentence. And, judging from the varieties of spelling there must have been great variety in the pronunciation. Since the close of the fifteenth century, however, although many changes have taken place, the growth of national culture and the intermingling of people from various parts of the British Empire, have tended to make the pronunciation uniform; so that now, educated speakers of English, all over the world, differ only slightly in their modes of pronunciation. Our spelling, also, chiefly owing to the use of dictionaries and the influence of our printed literature, has become almost rigidly fixed and very often does not correspond to the pronunciation.

Middle English, the product of Old English and Norman French.

10. For a century or so after the Normans settled in England, two languages were spoken side by side—French, by the Normans, and English, by the English. Gradually, however, the two peoples drew together and the two languages became fused into one. The highly important period during which the new language was being formed and was first spoken, is now known as that of *Middle English*, one of the best examples of which is seen in the *Canterbury Tales* of Chaucer, who wrote in the fourteenth century.

Limits of the three chief periods of growth.

11. All the changes during the three periods of the history of our language have taken place gradually; so that no hard and fast lines of division can be drawn. As a matter of convenience it is, however, usual to limit the periods as follows: Old English from the settlement of England in the fifth century till 1200. Middle English till 1500, and Modern English thereafter. As will be seen later, these periods are often again sub-divided; but in the meantime, we need notice only the sub-division of Modern English into

Early Modern (or *Elizabethan*) English (about 1500-1600) and *Later Modern* English; the English of the *present* day, being especially known as *Present* English.

But, notwithstanding these changes and names, it must always be kept in mind that the language we now speak and write is the direct descendant of the English spoken in the time of King Alfred a thousand years ago; for the structure of our sentences and by far the larger number of our most common and needful words are purely English.

12. Besides the differences at different periods, there are considerable differences in the language of English speakers even at the present day. Thus, every region has some peculiarities in the way in which its speakers use their English. There are, for example, the peculiarities of the English of Ireland and of Scotland, noticed by us in the Irish and the Scotch immigrants. And, in general, an Englishman can tell an American, and an American an Englishman by the way he talks. When these peculiarities amount to so much that they begin to interfere with our understanding the persons who have them, we say that such persons speak a *dialect* of English, rather than English itself, which in contradistinction is known as *standard* English.

Varieties of
Present
English.

13. There is also the difference between what we call *good* English and *bad* (or *vulgar*) English. By good English we mean those words and those meanings of them and those ways of putting them together, that are used generally by the best educated people of the present day; and bad English is, therefore, simply that which is not approved and accepted by good and careful speakers and writers. Then, again, we find that good English, when spoken, differs slightly from the language of well written books. In ordinary conversation we use, for instance, shortened forms of words, familiar expressions, and a loose arrangement of our sentences, which do not seem fitted for the higher kind of literature. We have in this

Good English
is reputable,
recent, and
national.

way a classification of good English into standard *literary* English and standard *spoken* (or *colloquial*) English.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Divisions of
English
Grammar.

14. We have now seen that English has changed much from what it was at first, and that there are varieties of the English spoken even now. When, however, we say simply "English," we mean the standard English of our own times; and the systematic discussion of the good and approved usages of this English form what we call *English Grammar*. The discussion in this book includes :

(1) The description and classification of the different words we use in speaking and writing. This is known as *Etymology*. The term properly means "a discussion of the true source of a word;" but, by writers on language, its meaning has been extended to include the classification of words, the consideration of their changes of form, and the history of their growth.

(2) An account of the ways in which words are properly combined to express our thoughts and feelings. This is known as *Syntax*; the term literally means "a putting together."

(3) An account of the *Sounds* and *Alphabet* of the language—how our spoken words are correctly sounded, and how they are represented by letters. Strictly speaking, this subject does not form part of Grammar, which, as the term is now generally understood, consists of Etymology and Syntax; but, as it is of importance in connection with a discussion of the formation of words, some knowledge of it is necessary.

In this Grammar these divisions will not be kept quite separate, but will be taken up in parts when it seems best for the presentation of the subject.

Why English
Grammar is a
valuable
study.

15. English grammar is studied for a variety of purposes, of which correctness of expression is only one, and a secondary one—by no means unimportant, but best attained indirectly. It is constant practice, under never-failing watch and correction, that makes

good writers and speakers. Grammar can help, but chiefly in the higher stages of the work. It must not be supposed, either, that the writer of a grammar makes the rules and laws for language; he only reports the facts of good language in an orderly way, so that they may be easily referred to, or learned.

Then, again, many of us want to learn other languages than English; or we want to learn other forms of English. Nor are we content with merely using language; we want to know something of what language is, and to realize what it is worth to us; for the study of language has a great deal to tell about the history of man and of what he has done in the world—as, for instance, what we know of the Arians. And, as language is the principal means by which the mind's operations are disclosed, we cannot study the mind's workings and its nature without a thorough understanding of language. For all these purposes, we need that knowledge of language and grammar to which the study of English grammar is the easiest and surest step.

II.—THE SENTENCE AND ITS COMPONENTS.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Two essentials of every sentence fully expressed.

16. Our speech, as we use it in talking or in writing, generally consists of *sentences*. Thus, when we think and say

The sun shines, OR They went away,

we have, as it is called, formed an opinion or judgment and expressed it by a sentence. As the sentence is, thus, a combination of words by which we assert that something is true of something, there must be in every sentence two parts: one representing the thing (*thing* here means "what we can think of") about which we make an assertion, and one expressing what we assert of the thing named. Thus, in the sentence,

The brilliant sun shines brightly over me every day,

the first three words represent what we make an assertion about, and the last six what we assert of the thing the first three stand for.

These two necessary parts of the sentence we call the *subject* and the *predicate* (*predicate* means "thing asserted").

The Assertive Sentence.

Strictly speaking, this explanation is true of only one kind of sentence, the *assertive* sentence, or that by which we *assert* or declare something to be so and so. There are other kinds of sentences; but the assertive sentence is by far the most common one, and the others will be taken up hereafter.

Subject and Predicate, not always expressed.

Strictly speaking, also, we often communicate our thoughts and feelings without using both a subject and a predicate. Thus, we say: "Water!", "Go home!", or we put a card in a window with "Rooms furnished," or "Furnished rooms," when we mean "I am surprised that this is water," or "I want water," "Go you home," "In this store rooms may be furnished," and "In this house there are furnished

rooms to let." Such forms of expression will be taken up further on. In the meantime, when we speak of a sentence, we mean the assertive sentence, containing both a subject and a predicate.

We, therefore, define subject and predicate thus :

1. *A sentence is the expression of a judgment; that is, the statement in language of a thought.*

Definitions of
Sentence,
Subject, and
Predicate.

2. *A sentence is composed of two parts: (1) the subject, signifying the thing about which the assertion is made; and (2) the predicate, signifying that which is asserted of the thing the subject stands for.*

CHIEF CLASSES OF WORDS.

17. We shall now see what kinds of words are put together to form the sentence composed of only two words.

A word that is used as *glitters, run, reads* are (1). The Verb.

Gold glitter, Horses run, George reads, is called a verb (*verb* means "word," this kind of word having been looked upon as the chief word in the sentence).

Now, since these words are predicates, and since a predicate expresses what we assert of the thing the subject stands for, a verb, in such sentences, is a word by means of which we assert.

A predicate, however, may consist of more than one word: thus, for example, instead of "The sun shines," we may say, with nearly the same meaning,

The sun *is* shining, or The sun *is* brilliant, or

The sun *sends* down rays.

But, in these sentences, the essential parts by means of which we assert shining, or brilliancy, or sending down rays, are *is* and *sends*: *is* and *sends* are, therefore, the verbs.

The verb, therefore, either forms the predicate or is the essential part of the predicate; and we define it as follows :

A verb is a word by means of which we make an assertion; and, hence, that stands alone or with other words, as predicate of a sentence.

Definition of
the Verb.

Predicate
Completion.

Verbs of
Incomplete
Predication.

18. When a predicate is composed of two or more words, we call the verb in it the *bare* predicate, and this along with the rest we call the *complete* predicate. We shall see, hereafter, that some verbs, such as *be*, *become*, are very rarely used alone as predicates, but form complete predicates when other words are added to them, which are called their *complement*; that is, *completing* part: thus, in

He *is* wise, AND He *becomes* wise,

is and *becomes* are called the bare predicates, and *wise* the complement; and there could, in neither sentence, be a complete assertion without *wise* or some other word used like it.

Verbs,
Transitive
and
Intransitive.

A very much larger number of verbs are incomplete in another way—namely, as they call for the addition of a word to express something on which the action they signify is exerted; thus, for example,

I fold ; She tells ; The man wrote ;
They saw ;

where we expect an addition telling what is folded, or told, or written, or seen; and the sense is completed in some such way as this: "I fold the paper," "She tells a story," "The man wrote a letter," "They saw me." Such an added word is always the name of something, as *paper*, *story*, *letter*, or a word like *me*, by which we know what thing is meant; and it is called the *object* of the verb, because it signifies that at which the action is directed. The verb which takes such an object to complete its meaning is called *transitive*, because the action, instead of being merely asserted of the thing the subject stands for, "passes over to" and affects the thing the object stands for. On the other hand, there are verbs which do not properly take after them such an object: thus, for example, *go*, *fall*, *run*. We may go on anything, fall from something, run over something; but we do not go any one or any thing, and so on. Such verbs are called *intransitive* (that is, "not transitive.")

19. The subjects *gold*, *horses*, *George*, and the object *books*, in the sentences, (2). The Noun.

Gold glitters, *Horses* run, *George* reads *books*,

are, each of them, what is called a **noun** (*noun* means simply "name"). All these nouns are the names of objects we can perceive by the sense of sight. Others, as *sound*, *noise*, *thunder*, are names of things we can perceive by other senses. Others, again, as *height*, *roundness*, *beauty*, *courage*, are names of qualities which we think of as having an existence apart from the objects possessing them. These are all names, and they are all alike nouns when used as subject of a sentence or as object of a verb.

Thus, we have the definition of the noun, based on what we have learned so far of its use in the sentence: Definition of Noun.

A noun is a name that stands, alone or with other words, as subject of a sentence or as object of a verb. (3). The Pronoun.

20. But, while a verb is the only kind of word that can be used as predicate of a sentence, a noun is not the only one that can be used as subject of a sentence or as object of a verb. In the sentences,

I stand, *You* are wise, *George* wrote *them*,

I, *you*, and *them* are called **pronouns**, (*pronoun* means "standing for a noun," and this was once supposed to be its characteristic use). Such words are additional means of representing things. They do not name them, as nouns do; but they point them out where the circumstances show plainly enough what they relate to: thus, we may say, instead of "George reads well,"

He reads well,

if we have spoken before of *George* in a way that makes plain what *he* relates to; or we may point towards or otherwise indicate a person whom we have not named or may not be able to name, and say, for instance,

He is a tall man, or *She* dresses well.

Or, speaking to *George* himself or to some one whose

name we may not know but whom we indicate in some way, we may say,

You read.

George also may say, referring to himself,

I read;

and, in these sentences, the circumstances plainly show what *you* and *I* relate to. If, again, George says,

This is my father,

this describes plainly enough the person whom George takes hold of, or towards whom he makes some gesture, or who is the only one near him.

We can, in this way, having due regard to sex, use *he*, *she*, *it*, or *this*, of any object we can speak of by a noun, no matter how different may be the objects and, of course, their names—the nouns; to any one we can speak to, we may say *you*; and anyone of them that can speak of itself may call itself *I*. Pronouns, therefore, differ from nouns, in not being attached to certain objects or classes of objects; there is nothing which may not be indicated by *I*, or *you*, or *it*, according to the circumstances under which the pronoun is used. Consequently, while there are thousands of ordinary names, or nouns, there are only a few pronouns, but they are used oftener than any nouns.

Differences
between
Nouns and
Pronouns.

Thus, we have the definition:

Definition of
the Pronoun.

A pronoun is a word which, without naming them, may represent objects of many different kinds when the circumstances show plainly to what object it relates; and, like the noun, it stands as subject of a sentence or as object of a verb.

Substantive
words.

21. Both nouns and pronouns have other uses besides that of standing as subject or object; these will be pointed out hereafter. It will also be shown that words which are generally used in other ways are sometimes used as nouns. Such a word is then said to be used *substantively* (*substantive* properly means "capable of expressing existence,") and the term substantive is itself another name for the noun.

22. These three parts of speech—the noun and pronoun on the one hand, and the verb on the other—are the principal, the independent, ones. They form sentences without help from other parts of speech.

Next we have to consider two other kinds of words, which do not by themselves, form either the subject or the predicate of a sentence, or the object of a verb. When, for instance, we speak of

Tall, stiff, black hats,

(4). The
Adjective.

we first limit the general name *hats* to that class of hats that are black, then the name *black hats* to that class that are stiff, and then the name *stiff, black hats* to that class that are tall; and we might, by putting *his* and *two* before the whole, reduce the still numerous class of *tall, stiff, black hats* to the two which some particular person owns. The adjectives and the noun together form a new name which has a more limited application than the noun alone had.

A word used like *his, two, tall, stiff, black*, is called an *adjective* (*adjective* merely means “something added;” that is, added to a noun) and is said to mark out that for which the noun stands; that is, to *limit* the application of the noun.

But, in

His two, tall, stiff, black hats,

while *his* and *two* merely limit the application of the noun *hats* to a certain person and a certain number, the adjectives *tall, stiff, black* do more: they express the qualities of tallness, stiffness, and blackness, as belonging to hats.

Hence, such adjectives are also said to *qualify* the noun *hat*; that is, to express a quality of the thing the noun stands for.

Again, in

The golden sun,

the adjective *golden* expresses a quality of the thing the noun stands for, but does not limit the application of the noun, if, as is usual, we assume there is but one sun.

Hence, generally, the adjective may merely mark out, or merely express a quality of, the thing the

noun stands for, or it may both mark out and express a quality. Consequently, in describing the function of the adjective, we say that it *modifies* a noun: that is, "changes its meaning somewhat," for, as the adjective and its noun make but one meaning (that is, are really one name), the addition of the adjective changes the value of the noun.

Thus, we have the definition:

Definition of
the Adjective.

An adjective is a word used to mark out, or to express a quality of, the object the noun stands for; that is, to modify a noun.

Different
uses of the
Qualifying
Adjective.

23. When the adjective expresses quality, it is sometimes a more important and sometimes a less important addition to the noun and member of the sentence.

If, for example, we say,

*The brave soldier was wounded with a sharp sword,
and his red blood flowed from the deep cut;*

the adjectives *brave*, *sharp*, *red*, and *deep* are simply pictorial, or descriptive, and the sentence would mean essentially the same if they were omitted. The adjective, thus used, simply gives prominence to some quality actually possessed by the object the noun represents, which quality we may not have thought or known of. The value of the notion (notion means "any conception of the mind," as of an object itself, or of what it does, or of what quality it has) thus presented to us by the noun and adjective together is different from that presented by the noun before the addition, though the extent of the application of the noun remains unchanged.

Definition
of Notion

But, if we say

*Brave soldiers do not run away, Sharp swords make
deep cuts, Only vertebrates have red blood;*

the adjectives are of much more consequence, since it is implied in each case that, if the quality described were wanting, something quite different would be true. The adjective here limits the application of the noun by its description of the object the noun names.

24. No assertion is made by an adjective any more than by a noun; for, when we say "the *good* man," we take it for granted that the man possesses the quality of goodness; the goodness is not asserted. But we can make an adjective or a noun a part of an assertion about the thing the subject stands for, if we join the two together by a verb (18). The verb which we especially use for this purpose is *be*: thus, for example,

Predicate
Adjective and
Noun.

The man *is good*, The man *is a soldier*.

A noun or an adjective which, in this way, by help of a verb, is made a part of the predicate, is a kind of complement and is called a *predicate noun* or *adjective*. Thus used, the noun or adjective merely describes what the subject stands for; it does not limit its application (23).

An adjective used as predicate modifies a pronoun as freely as it modifies a noun, but an adjective scarcely ever modifies a pronoun placed immediately after it: thus, we say: "You are *tall*," but not "*Tall* you."

25. There is also another class of words, used to modify the other member of the simple sentence, the verb. (5). The Adverb.

If we say

The sun shines *brightly*, OR shines *now*, OR shines *above*, the words *brightly*, *now*, *above*, tell something about the manner, or time, or place of the action expressed by *shines*; what each of these words tells, expresses a quality or a limitation of the shining we have asserted of the sun.

A word thus used is called an *adverb*, because it is *added to a verb* in much the same way and for the same purpose as the adjective is added to the noun it modifies.

But some adverbs are capable of being used to modify adjectives: thus,

A *very* cold day, A *truly* faithful friend, A *possibly* false report; and some modify another adverb: thus,

Very brightly shining, *Quite* often seen, *Exceedingly* seldom.

We have, then, the definition:

Definition of
the Adverb.

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

26. Not all adverbs can be used with all the kinds of words which adverbs modify. Almost the only ones that modify other adverbs are those expressing degree: as *very*, *too*, *more*, *most*. The same are used most freely with adjectives, which, however, take also more or less freely the whole series of adverbs which the verb takes; because, like the verb, the adjective, in one of its classes, often implies something of state or condition: thus, for example, "The sun showed himself shining *brightly*." On the other hand, adverbs expressing degree are less used with verbs. Some of the commonest of them, as *very* and *too*, even do not go with verbs directly at all: they have to be changed to *very much*, *too much*: thus, for example, we say,

He changed *very much* (OR *too much*), NOT *very* or *too*.

(6). The
Preposition.

27. We noticed above two of the uses of the noun or pronoun—those of serving as subject of a sentence or object of a verb. Now, we have to notice that a combination of words made up of a noun or pronoun, and such a word as *of*, *to*, *from*, or *by*, which connects it with another noun, or with a verb, adjective, or adverb, may be used like an adjective to modify this other noun; or, like an adverb, to modify the verb, adjective, or adverb: thus,

An emigrant *from Ireland*; He speaks *with distinctness*,
are the same as

An *Irish* emigrant; He speaks *distinctly*;
and in

It is good *for us*, He spoke sufficiently *for my purpose*,
the modification of the adjective *good* and of the adverb *sufficiently* is the same as would be made by an adverb. Sometimes also a pronoun may be modified in the same way: thus, for instance, *who*, in

Who *among you* (OR *of the company*) thinks so?

Such connecting words are called *prepositions*. *Preposition* means "placed before;" and these words are, in fact, usually placed before the noun or pronoun which they are to connect to another word (just as they are often placed before a verb—and hence the name—to make another verb, as in *withstand*, *outrun*, *underlie*).

Frequently, however, in all styles of English—in poetry, and in prose, both spoken and written—the preposition does not precede: thus, for instance,

To wander *earth around*; Search *the whole world over*; *What*
did you come *for*? John is the name *that* he answers *to*;
This house I will never set my face *in*.

Each preposition along with the noun or pronoun it joins to another word modifies in some particular way this other word; that is, the preposition defines a certain kind of relation as existing between the notions (23) expressed by the other two words: thus, for example, *of* often shows possession, or connects the notion of a possessor with that of a thing possessed, as in

Shows many
different
relations.

The palace *of* the King;

and *to* and *from* show relations of place, as in *

He went *from* Windsor *to* Montreal.

Thus, we have the definition:

A preposition is a word which joins a noun or pronoun to some other word, and shows the relation between the notions they express; thus forming with the noun or pronoun a combination of words which has the value of an adjective or an adverb.

Definition of
the Preposi-
tion.

28. But not only have we a class of words to join together other words and show the relation between the notions that they express, we have also a class of words to join together sentences and show the relations between the thoughts they express. Thus, in

(7). The
Conjunction.

He went *and* I came,

we join together the thoughts or judgments (16) expressed by *He went* and *I came*, by means of *and*;

that is, we thus join together two sentences. So, also, *but* connects the sentences in

We spoke, *but* they said nothing.

Chief use, to connect sentences.

And and *but* in these sentences are called **conjunctions**. (*Conjunction* means something that “*conjoins*, or joins together”): they join together different sentences; and this is the commonest use of conjunctions.

But, with different degrees of closeness.

Sometimes, as in these sentences, the conjunction does little more than loosely bind the sentences together, each sentence remaining a real assertion; sometimes, however, it binds them closely together and shows that the second sentence stands in a certain close relation to the first; a relation, the nature of which is defined, or made clear, by the conjunction. Thus, in

- She blushed *because* she was ashamed; She played *while* they danced;

because shows her shame to have been the *cause* of her blushing; and *while* shows the dancing to have *accompanied* her playing; and so with similar conjunctions. In these sentences, again, *she blushed* and *she played* are the only real assertions.

Connects also words and phrases used in the same way.

But, besides connecting different sentences, some of the most common conjunctions, especially *and*, are used to connect, in the same sentence, other combinations of words (not consisting of a subject and a predicate), called **phrases**, that are used in the same way in the sentence; also single words that are used in the same way in the sentence: thus,

On the hills *and* in the valleys, lies the snow; A man of bad character, *but* of great ability; By *and* with their consent; A proud, *though* childlike, form.

And, as with the relations between thoughts, the relations the conjunctions show between notions are of different degrees of closeness: thus, for instance, when we say

He and I came,

we mean “He came” and “I came”; but, in

A great *and* good man,

we refer to one man who possesses the qualities of

greatness and goodness, not to two men—one great and one good. And the relation is even closer in

Two *and* two make four; A slice of bread *and* butter.

Thus, we have the definition:

A conjunction is a word which joins sentences; or phrases or words, used in the same way in a sentence.

Definition
of the
Conjunction.

29. The seven classes of words, whose uses have been described, are called *parts of speech*, and each word, as belonging to one or another class, or as having a certain use or function, is also called a *part of speech*. This name, “part of speech,” given to a word, plainly implies that there is something incomplete about it; that it must be joined with other parts in order to make a whole, or in order to be speech. The seven parts of speech fall among themselves into three divisions:

Parts of
speech and
their classi-
fication.

1. *The three independent parts of speech, the Noun, the Pronoun, and the Verb, capable of forming sentences without others;*

2. *The two modifiers, the Adjective and the Adverb, always attached to some other word, which they modify;*

3. *The two connectives, the Preposition and the Conjunction, which join one word, or phrase, or sentence to another.*

30. There is yet another class of words, used in exclamation, which are generally reckoned as a part of speech. Examples are

(8). The
Interjection.

Oh! Ah! Fie! Pshaw! Fudge! Lo!

These words, and words used like them, are called *interjections*. The name *interjection* signifies something that is *interjected*, that is, “thrown into the midst of” something else: and this something else is the sentence, as made up of the other parts of speech. Calling them thus, then, implies what is really the case, that they are not parts of the sentence itself; they are not combined with other parts to make up sentences. Hence, they are not parts of speech in the same sense as the others. Each interjection is, in a certain way, an undivided sentence, put in the language of feeling rather than in that of reason. It is a direct intimation of feeling or of will, made

An undivided
sentence in
the language
of feeling.

expressive chiefly by the tone, the inflection of voice, with which it is uttered. Thus, for example, *Ah!* expresses a number of different feelings—such as joy, pain, surprise, disgust—according to the way in which it is uttered.

We add, then, the definition :

Definition of the Interjection.

An interjection is an exclamation, expressive of feeling; it does not combine with other words to form a sentence; and so is not in the same sense as the rest a part of speech.

A means of communication; not merely an outburst of feeling.

31. The interjections are not real natural outbursts of feeling, like a scream, a groan, a sigh, though they come nearer to this character than does anything else in language. They are, like other words, means of communication (and hence they may be called “parts of speech”); they are utterances by which we seek to signify to others that we are moved by such and such feelings. Hence, each language has its own set of interjections, more or less different from those of other languages.

Effects of strong feeling on form of speech.

The sentence is the means of expression of calm assertion, of reasoning, of explanation, of description. When the speaker is moved with strong feeling, the sentence-form of expression is wont to be more or less abandoned, and only the prominent words are uttered, with tone and gesture that sufficiently explain them. Some of our ordinary words, commonly used as real parts of speech, are so much used in this exclamatory way that they shade off into interjections and may be so called. Such are

why, what, well, indeed, hail, look, behold.

Words and phrases of asseveration, from *indeed* and *I declare* up to the strongest oaths, are also of the nature of interjections.

Primary and Secondary Interjections.

Some words, which now appear only as interjections, were once ordinary parts of speech; but their character as such has become corrupted and disguised; thus,

wounds (“by God’s wounds”); *O dear* (*O dieu*, *O God*); *egad* (“by God”); *alas* (*ah lasso*, “O [me] miserable”).

On the other hand, our commonest interjections are spontaneous utterances, and do not originate in grammatical forms: for example,

O, oh, alack, pooh, pshaw, heigh-ho.

Such interjections are called *primary*; others formed from real parts of speech being called *secondary*.

DIFFERENT VALUES OF THE SAME WORD.

32. From what has been said of the parts of speech, it is clear that the grammatical value of a word depends upon the duty it performs in a sentence. We shall now see that the same word may have different grammatical values even in the same sentence according to the uses it is put to; thus, in the sentence,

I have sold my *silver* watch for a piece of *silver*, with which I *silver* some counterfeit coin,

the first *silver* is an adjective; the second, a noun; and the third, a verb. In the following, again,

He had all *but* one, *but* that was very heavy; had he had *but* more time, he could have brought it too,

the first *but* is a preposition; the second, a conjunction, and the third, an adverb. And so with very many other words.

In these sentences, both *silver* and *but* are different parts of speech, according as they are differently used; although, generally, *silver* is a noun, and *but* a conjunction.

The words we find in a dictionary are often described in it as being certain parts of speech. This is because they are generally used in a certain way in a sentence. Outside of the sentence, however, words are really only names or signs, not even nouns; for the word called a noun must be then regarded as a part of our speech, and thus have some relation in the sentence. Accordingly, when we speak of the adjective *true*, for instance, or of the noun *river*, we mean the word which is generally so used.

Grammatical value of a word depends on its function.

Value of words outside of the sentence.

Hence,

1. A word does not belong exclusively to one class, although it may generally be so used;
2. To determine to what class a word belongs, we must know how it is used in the sentence.

PECULIAR WORDS AND CLASSES OF WORDS.

33. Besides the eight parts of speech which we have so far considered and into which it has long been customary, but by no means correct, to divide all our words, there are words and even classes of words of a peculiar nature.

Thus, in

There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin,

Words, not
full parts of
speech.

there, which is generally an adverb meaning "in that place," is used as an almost meaningless introductory word to fill up the place left vacant by the transposed subject; for it would seem strange to say in ordinary speech,

Came to the beach a poor exile of Erin,

although this sentence contains all that is really necessary—a subject and predicate.

Words, more
than one part
of speech:

There are even classes of words which partake of the nature of more than one part of speech. Thus, in

This is the man *who* came,

(1). Conjun-
ctive
Pronouns.

who is a pronoun referring to *man* while it acts as a conjunction in joining the sentence of which it is the subject to the sentence going before. *Who* and words used like it, as *that* and *which*, thus partake of the nature of the pronoun and the conjunction, and are, therefore, called *conjunctive* pronouns. *What*, indeed,—another conjunctive pronoun—in such a sentence as

This is *what* I want,

is equivalent to *that which*; thus performing three functions.

Again, in

(2). Pro-
nominal
Adjectives.

This man is *my* father, I know *that* man,
I know *which* book he means,

the pronouns *this*, *my*, *that*, and *which* are also adjectives. *This*, *my*, and *that*, and words used like them, as *each*, *either*, *neither*, *his*, *its*, are called *pronominal* adjectives; *which*—and *what* and *whose*, when used in the same way—being conjunctive also, and so being called *conjunctive pronominal* adjectives.

Similarly, *when* and *where*, in

I will go *when* (OR *where*) you go,

(3). Adverbial conjunctions.

partake of the nature of the adverb and the conjunction, modifying the *go* of *you go* and connecting *you go* with *I will go*. They, and words used like them, as *whither*, *whence*, and *whereby*, are, therefore, called *adverbial* conjunctions.

Again, in

To give is better than *to receive*; AND *Giving* is better than *receiving*;

(4). Infinitives and Gerunds.

to give and *to receive*, and *giving* and *receiving* express as nouns the actions which the verbs *gives* and *receives* assert of John in "John *gives* (and, *receives*) a book." Words so used partake of the nature of the noun and the verb. For reasons to be explained hereafter words like *to give* are called *infinitives*, and words like *giving*, *gerunds*.

And the person who gives may be described as a *giving* person and what he gives as a *given* thing; so that *giving* and *given* express as adjectives what the verb asserts. So, too, with *loved*, *running*, and *going* in

I am *loved*, I was *running*, I saw him *going*.

(5). Participles.

Such words, therefore, partake of the nature of the adjective and the verb, and are called *participles* (*participle* means "partaking").

Still further, the word *yes*, which we use in answer to a question, is itself equivalent to a sentence. Thus, in answer to

Has he gone? *Yes*.

Sentence-words.

Yes stands for *He has gone*; that is, it is equivalent to a sentence. Other such words are *no*, *yea*, *nay*. They are especially known as *sentence-words*.

Classification
of such words.

34. Thus it will be found that nearly all the words that do not strictly belong to one or another of the eight parts of speech fall into one or another of three classes:

1. *Words whose usual force as ordinary parts of speech has been weakened, having each generally a peculiar use;*

2. *Words which partake of the nature of more than one part of speech;*

3. *Words which are each equivalent to a complete sentence.*

But, chiefly because the words belonging to each of these three classes generally resemble, or are connected with, one or more of the eight parts of speech, grammarians have not formed separate classes for them. Their nature and uses will, therefore, be taken up fully in connection with one of those parts of speech which they resemble.

NOTIONAL AND RELATIONAL WORDS.

Distinction
dependent on
meaning.

35. Grammar deals with the forms and sentence-functions of words: it is concerned with their meanings only in so far as they bear upon these forms and functions. There is, however, a distinction of meanings which is often important in Grammar.

A noun being the name of an object, has a meaning belonging to itself; thus, when we use the word *horse*, or *sun*, it at once calls up in the mind an image or *notion* (23) of the object named. A pronoun, on the other hand, does not call up an image or notion, when considered alone. Thus, in "*He* speaks" the *he* indicates no one until we know to what it *relates*, and in "*I* speak," *I* has to be considered in its relation to the person now speaking. Nouns, therefore, and other classes of words which present to the mind a distinct notion of anything are called *notional*; and pronouns and words like them, which depend for their intelligibility on their relations, are called *relational*. And, of course, prepositions and conjunctions, which express relations, are relational words.

Words, either
Notional or
Relational.

This classification does not correspond to that of the parts of speech. Most verbs, for instance, are

notional, as *goes*, *runs*; but some may be either notional or relational: thus, in "*God is*," *is*, expressing "existence," is notional, but in "*God is love*," where it merely asserts (that is, "brings *God* and *love* together in the relation of subject and predicate"), it is relational; and in "*They will* (that is, "wish") it," *will* is notional, but, in "*He will go*," it is relational, giving *go* a future meaning. Some relational words, again, contain more or less of a notional meaning: thus, for example, we may take "*I shall go*" as expressing simply the futurity of my going, but "*I will go*" (when *will* is not emphatic) as expressing, in addition, the notion of the futurity of my going depending on my will.

And there are words of which one part is notional and one relational: thus, in "the *man's* hat," the notional word *man* has had 's added to it, which implies the relation of possession when the word *man's* is brought into combination with the word *hat*. The 's in "The *man's* hat," thus corresponds to the relational word *of* in the equivalent expression: "The hat *of* the *man*."

Words, partly
Notional and
partly
Relational.

COMBINATIONS OF WORDS.

PHRASES.

36. Thus far we have been dealing with the grammatical values of single words, and it is to single words only that the names of the parts of speech were originally applied. We shall now see that, in a sentence, a number of words, combined in a certain way, very often have the grammatical value of one word. Thus, instead of

He sprang *hastily* from his *grassy* couch,
we may say, with the same meaning

He sprang *in haste* from his couch *of grass*.

In the latter sentence, *in haste* and *of grass*, respectively, have the grammatical values of the adverb *hastily* and the adjective *grassy*.

The following contain other examples of combinations of words, which, although they cannot all be represented as above by single words, are, notwithstanding, similarly used:

Classes of
Phrases.

(1). Nouns :

He is a *ne'er do well*, *Too swift* arrives as tardy as *too slow*;

(2). Pronouns :

They love *one another*; They spoke to *each other*;

(3). Adjectives :

The house *on yonder hill*; The war *between Spain and the United States*;

(4). Verbs :

I shall be going, *I have gone*, *May you be happy*;

(5). Adverbs :

The house stood *on yonder hill*, He did it *by himself*;

(6). Prepositions :

He went *by way of* Montreal ; He will go *instead of* me ;

(7). Conjunctions :

He *as well as* I went, He went *as soon as* I had gone ;

(8). Interjections :

To be sure! *For shame!* *Ah me!* *Alas the day!*

Combinations of words used like those above, with the value of parts of speech, are called **phrases**—**noun** (or, **substantive**) phrases, **adjective** phrases, and so on.

As may be seen by the foregoing examples, all the parts of speech may be represented by phrases, which, of course, perform the same function in the sentence. And, as will be seen later, some of the peculiar classes of words (33) may also be so represented.

We add, then, the definition :

Definition of
the Phrase.

A phrase is a combination of two or more words (not consisting of a subject and predicate), having in a sentence the value of a single word or part of speech.

CLAUSES.

37. Again, instead of

The *wealthy* man arose *on waking*,

we may say with the same meaning

The man *who was wealthy* arose *when he awoke*.

In the latter sentence, *who was wealthy* and *when he awoke*, each of which is a part or member of the sentence and consists of a subject and a predicate, have the values of the adjective *wealthy* and the adverb phrase *on waking*. Classes of
Clauses.

The following contain other examples of sentences which are similarly used, although they cannot in every case be represented, as above, by equivalent words or phrases:

(1). Noun:

He little knew *how much he wronged her*;
That you have wronged me doth appear in this;

in which the italicized parts are nouns, respectively the object and the subject of the verbs *knew* and *doth*;

(2). Adjective:

Each thought of the woman *who loved him best*;
The place *where they lived* knows them no more;

in which the italicized parts are adjective to *woman* and *place* respectively;

(3). Adverb:

They trimmed their lamps *as the sun went down*;
Yet, *ere we part*, one lesson I can leave you;

in which the italicized parts are adverb to the verbs *trimmed* and *can* respectively.

Sentences used, like those above, with the value of parts of speech, are called *clauses*—*noun* (or, *substantive*), clauses, *adjective* clauses, and *adverb* clauses. What parts
of speech
may, and may
not, be
Clauses.

There can be no verb-clause because a verb has no other office than that of forming a clause or sentence; the pronoun is itself a substitute for a noun; and the connectives (the preposition and the conjunction) cannot, of course, be clauses themselves. While, therefore, any of the parts of speech may be represented by phrases, only the adjective, adverb, and noun can be represented by clauses.

III.—CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

I.—ACCORDING TO COMPOSITION.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Definition of
the Simple
Sentence.

38. A sentence which is made up of one subject and one predicate is called a *simple* sentence, however many words either of them may contain. Indeed, as a matter of theory, the simple sentence is capable of being made a whole page long, for instance. But, in practice, the length of a sentence is kept within bounds by the fear of making it awkward or even unintelligible. We prefer to put what we have to say into a series of briefer sentences, separate statements. We could, if we chose, use short separate sentences. Thus, for example :

I awoke one day. It was last week. It was six o'clock. I got up at once. I dressed myself. The sun was up. It was hidden by clouds. The morning was not very light. I walked into the garden. The grass was still wet. The bushes were still wet. The dew lay upon them. I saw a bird. The bird lay on the ground. It could not fly. It was wounded. Some one had hit it with a stone. I picked the bird up. I brought it into the house. I put it into a cage. I fed it. I tended it. It got well. It flew away.

Combination
of simple
sentences.

39. The connection of the thoughts expressed by the simple sentences in the preceding paragraph is clear enough; though there are no connecting words to point it out. The mind infers the relations amongst the sentences. But the language sounds jerky. No one writes or talks in that way—unless sometimes for very young children, who have not yet grown familiar enough with language to make or to understand longer combinations of words. For the use of people in general, we put what we have to say in better form by combining the short sentences by means of connectives; by their aid, also, getting rid of unnecessary repetitions: thus, for example :

I awoke at six o'clock one day last week, *and* at once got up *and* dressed myself. The morning was not very light; *for*,

though the sun was up, it was hidden by clouds. *As* I walked out into the garden, *where* the grass and bushes were still wet with the dew *that* lay upon them, I saw a bird lying on the ground. It could not fly, *because* someone had wounded it with a stone. I picked it up *and* brought it into the house, put it into a cage, *and* fed and tended it *until* it got well; *when* I released it, *and* it flew away.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

40. The combination of simple sentences into longer ones is of two degrees, one closer and the other less close.

When the combination of simple sentences is of the looser kind, they are put side by side, and, as it were, loosely tied together, each keeping its own value as an independent assertion. Thus, for example, if we say

Looser combination of simple sentences.

I awoke *and* I got up at once;
The sun is up, *but* it is hidden by clouds;

each *clause* (for any sentence which is joined with other sentences to make a larger one, is called a clause—not simply a sentence which is the equivalent of a part of speech [37]), though joined to another by a conjunctive word, has the value of a separate sentence in the longer one. Such clauses are called *principal* (that is, “of the first rank”). With relation to one another, again, they are called *co-ordinate*; that is, of *equal order* or rank; the relationship itself is called *co-ordination*; and a sentence, like one of those above, made up of two or more principal clauses, is called a *compound* sentence.

Definition of the Clause.

Class of clauses.

Definition of Compound Sentence.

41. Again, the co-ordination may be of four kinds, each expressed by a different kind of connective; so that there are also four classes of *co-ordinate* conjunctions, which are the usual connectives of such clauses.

Classes of Co-ordinate clauses and conjunctions.

(1). In the sentences:

(1). Copulative.

The people are like the sea, *and* orators are like the wind;
He is the wisest of his time; he is *also* the most respected;

the clauses are simply *coupled* or united in the same line of thought, and the co-ordination and the conjunction are called *copulative*. The other commonest conjunctions of this class are *likewise*, *too*, *besides*, *moreover*, and the phrase *as well as*.

(2). Adversative.

(2). In the sentences:

A fool speaks all his mind, *but* a wise man reserves something;

The rich have two sources of wealth, *whereas* the poor have but one;

the clauses are *adverse* or opposed in thought, and the co-ordination and the conjunction are called *adversative*. The other commonest conjunctions of this class are *whereas*, *yet*, *however*, *still*, *notwithstanding*.

(3). Causal.

(3). In the sentences:

The soil is rich, *for* the vegetation is rank;
It is raining; *consequently* I cannot go;

the second clause states the *cause* or reason for the statement in the first clause, or the second clause is an inference or conclusion from the statement in the first, and the co-ordination and the conjunction are called *causal*. The other commonest conjunctions of this class are *therefore*, *then*, *hence*.

(4). Alternative.

(4.) In the sentences:

The King must win, *or* forfeit his crown forever,
You must be diligent, *else* you cannot succeed;

an *alternative* or choice is stated, and the co-ordination and conjunction are called *alternative*. The other commonest conjunctions of this class are *either*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*.

Correlative conjunctions.

Either and *or*, their negatives *neither* and *nor*, and (in old style) *whether* and *or*, are called *correlative* (that is, "having a mutual relation"), because they occur generally together, introducing the alternatives, and the former of them is always followed by the latter: thus,

Either he must leave, *or* I shall go;
Neither this man sinned, *nor* his parents.

There are also correlative copulative conjunctions: thus, *both* . . . *and*; *at once* (or *alike*) . . . *and*; *not only* . . . *but also*; *as well* . . . *as*; *what* . . . *what*.

And their arrangement.

In arrangement, the correlatives should have

corresponding positions in the sentences: thus, for example,

Neither will I do it, nor will my brother;

not,

I will neither do it, nor will my brother.

42. A compound sentence may, of course, consist of more than two principal clauses with more than one kind of co-ordination: thus, for example,

A little weeping would ease my heart;

But, in their briny bed,

My tears must stop, for every drop

Hinders needle and thread.

Combinations of compound sentences and of co-ordinate conjunctions.

Combinations of some of the conjunctions are also very common. When the combination consists of conjunctions of the same class, as *and moreover*, *but yet*, greater emphasis is given to the co-ordination; but, in such expressions as *and therefore*, *and still*, the co-ordination may be determined by the second word, so that there is a real combination; or the co-ordination may be copulative, the second word being valued as an adverb in the clause that follows. Indeed, in most such combinations and expressions, the first word may be valued as the conjunction, and the second as an adverb.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

43. When the combination of simple sentences is of the closer kind; as, for instance, in

He little knew how much he wronged her;

Each thought of the woman who loved him best;

They trimmed their lamps as the sun went down;

Closer combination of simple sentences.

the only real assertions are

He little knew, Each thought of the woman, They trimmed their lamps;

and, as we have already seen (37),

how much he wronged her is a noun, the object of *knew*;

who loved him best is an adjective, modifying *woman*;

as the sun went down is an adverb, modifying *trimmed*.

When a clause is thus made to play the part of a word in another clause, it is said to be *subordinate* to that other; that is, to be "put in an order or rank

Other classes of clauses.

below it, and it is called a *subordinate* clause; the relationship of the second clause to the first is called *subordination*; and the first clause is called (as in the case of a compound sentence) the *principal* clause. And, according to the part the subordinate clause plays, it is called an *adjective*, an *adverb*, or a *noun* (or, *substantive*) clause.

Classes of connectives of subordinate clauses:

(1). Conjunctive pronouns.

The connectives of the subordinate with the principal clauses are :

(1). The conjunctive pronouns, as *that*, *who*, *what* *which*, and *as* after *same* and *such* : thus,

This is the man *that* was taken prisoner;
The man *who* was your friend tells you so;

He understands *what* you are saying;

The branches *which* hung from the tree are broken;

Your friend is the *same* (or, *such*) *as* he has always been.

(2). Conjunctive pronominal adjectives.

(2). The conjunctive pronominal adjectives, as *which*, *what*, and *whose* : thus,

I know *what* book you mean; I know *which* book you mean;

I know *whose* book you mean.

(3). Subordinate conjunctions.

(3). The *subordinate* conjunctions, as *that*, *before*, *because*, *if*, *though*, and *than* : thus,

I believe *that* it is so; I went *before* he came; I went *because* he came; I will go *if* he comes; I will go *though* he comes; He is greater *than* I am (great).

And we have already (33) considered the use of the subordinate adverbial conjunctions.

The various constructions and classes of subordinate clauses will be taken up in detail when we come to consider the noun, the adjective, and the adverb.

Definition of the Complex Sentence.

44. A sentence which contains as one of its members a subordinate clause is called *complex*. By this is meant that its parts are more woven together (*complex* means "woven together") than those of the compound sentence (*compound* means "placed together").

Variety of composition.

A complex sentence may contain more than one subordinate clause :

(1). These subordinate clauses may be of different

kinds, and not directly connected with one another : thus,

*When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake;
What lay there was, if I saw aright, a bird which could not fly.*

(2). Or, a subordinate clause may have another clause subordinate to it, and this, again, another, and so on : for example,

*I went into the garden where the grass was wet with the dew
that lay upon it.*

(3). Or, two or more subordinate clauses of the same kind may have the same construction in a sentence, being joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions: thus,

*This is the bird that lay on the ground and that could not fly;
It could not fly, because it had been shot or it had been
wounded with a stone ;*

I saw that the bird was wounded and that it could not fly.

Subordinate clauses, as well as principal ones, are called co-ordinate when they are thus joined, and have a like office ; since co-ordinate means simply " having the same rank."

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES.

45. A compound sentence, moreover, may be made by joining together complex, or simple and complex sentences, instead of simple ones. Such a sentence is called *compound-complex*. Examples are

Definition
of the
Compound-
Complex
Sentence.

*He teaches who gives, and he learns who receives;
I cannot go; but you who are unfettered may.*

And, on the other hand (as in this very sentence), we often put a simple connective, especially *and* or *but*, at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to shew, in a general way, its relation to what precedes. Thus, there is no absolute distinction between the sentence and the clause.

OMISSION OF CONNECTIVES.

46. Occasionally in compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences, the connective is not used—especially *that*, whether conjunctive pronoun or conjunction ; and the conjunction *and*, except between the last two of a number of co-ordinate clauses. This

Connectives,
sometimes
omitted.

does not, however, alter the character of the sentence; for the conjunction is omitted simply because the connection can be felt without it. Examples are

I came, (*and*) I saw, (*and*) I conquered;
 He came yesterday, (*and*) saw myself, and then left;
 Men may live fools; (*but*) fools they cannot die;
 The Lord reigneth; (*therefore*) let the earth rejoice;
 Rich and rare were the gems (*that*) she wore;
 Times of heroism are generally times of terror; (*for*) the
 day never shines in which this element may not work;
 It is strange (*that*) she came; I am sure (*that*) it is so;
 That is the reason (*that*—"for which") I do not like him;
 He came the day (*that*—"on which") he heard it.

Older and
modern uses
of conjunc-
tions.

47. As we have seen (39), without connectives, our speech would consist of a number of short sentences whose relation to one another we could only infer. This was the condition of the Indo-European speech at first, and still is of uncultured people and races, and of young children, who learn very slowly to make compound and complex sentences. Conjunctions are more a development of literature than any other part of speech. Until about three centuries ago, partly as a result of the widespread study of logic and partly owing, probably, to the influence of classics, their use was more general than at present and the sentences were cumbersome and of greater length. Now, largely owing to the practical character of the age, every dispensable word is left out, and the connection of the thoughts, especially in spoken language, is inferred from the context. A very few conjunctions—chiefly *and*, *if*, *for*, *but*, *because*, and *that*—serve our purposes; *and* in particular (that is, the mere coupling of the thoughts) being used to indicate a variety of relations: thus,

She gained the door, applied the key, *and* (= "consequently")
 the door yielded;

Do this *and* you will succeed (= "If you do this, you will
 succeed")

God made the country *and* (= "but") men made the town.

II. ACCORDING TO FORM.

Three classes
of sentences.

(1). The
Assertive.

48. As has been already stated (16), we use other forms of communication than the *assertive* sentence. In it we assert that something is true of the thing the

subject stands for—that is, that a certain connection exists between them. But we may desire to know whether this connection exists, or we may desire that this connection should exist. We thus have two other kinds of sentences—the *interrogative* and the *imperative*, which are fundamentally different from the assertive, because they lack the assertion, or predication, which is its essential.

By an interrogative sentence, we express a desire to know something. But instead of putting it in the form of a statement, “I desire to know,” or, “I wish you to tell me such and such a thing,” we usually make known our desire by a peculiar form of sentence: thus,

(2). The Interrogative.

Have you any fish? Was John there? Could she go?

There are also special classes of interrogative words, pronouns, or adjectives, or adverbs, which have in themselves a question-asking meaning: thus,

Who was he? By *what* way did he go? *Why* did he come?

By an imperative sentence, we express our will or wish that a thing be so and so; we give a command, using a certain form of the verb, with which the subject is generally omitted—almost always in colloquial English: thus,

(3). The Imperative.

Give me the fish; *Go* away from here; *Be* off.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE.

49. The interrogative sentence differs least from the assertive, has least that is peculiar to itself. Like the assertive, it is made up of a subject and a verb, each admitting all the adjuncts, or modifiers, that are to be found in the ordinary sentence.

The variation of the interrogative sentence from the assertive is of two kinds:

(1). If the question is as to the predication itself,—that is whether a certain thing which would be expressed by the sentence in its assertive form—is or is not true, then the change is simply one of arrangement, the subject being put after the simple verb instead of before it. Thus, for example,

First variety.

Is he here? Did he arrive yesterday? Will he go to town?

To such questions, the natural answer is usually the same sentence in assertive form, with or without the adverb *not* added: thus,

He is here; *He* did arrive (or, generally, *He* arrived) yesterday; *He* will not go to town to-morrow.

or, for brevity's sake, we use the simple *yes* or *no* (33); the one in place of the full affirmative sentence, the other of the full negative.

The
Alternative
Interrogative.

A variation of this kind of sentence is the *alternative* interrogative, by which, of two or more things thought of as possible, the one actually true is sought to be known: thus, for example,

Did he arrive yesterday or to-day? Will he go by rail, or in his carriage?

Here the answer is the assertion of one or of the other alternative, or the denial of the remaining one or of both: thus,

He arrived yesterday; He will go, not by rail, but in his carriage.

Second
variety.

(2). If the question is as to the thing the subject or object stands for in a given predication, or as to the qualities or circumstances of this thing or of the act or condition expressed by the verb, then the enquiry is made by means of some interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb: thus, for example,

Who is here? *When* did he arrive? *What* does he want? *Where* is he going to-morrow? *At what* inn will he put up?

The natural answer to such questions is a corresponding assertion, with the desired subject or object or other adjunct used in place of the interrogative word: thus, for example,

John is here; He arrived yesterday; He will put up at the best inn.

Colloquial
form.

In the language of every-day life, an assertion has often added to it a question, consisting generally of an abbreviated sentence which expresses the expectation of what is stated in the assertive sentence: thus,

This man is comeliest, *is he not*?
A shocking thing hunger is, *isn't it*?
Why! you won't fight him, *will you*, Bob?
It's all right, old boy, *is it*?

Regular
place of the
interrogative
word.

50. The regular place of the interrogative word, of whatever kind, is at the beginning of the sentence,

or as near it as possible; and then, as in the variety where there is no interrogative word, the subject, unless it be itself the interrogative word, is put after the simple verb: thus, for example,

Where is he? Where has your brother gone?

This order of arrangement, as it inverts the usual position of the two essential elements of the sentence, the subject and the verb, is called the *inverted order*; or the sentence is said to be an *inverted* one. The special use of the inverted order is in interrogation; but, as will be seen further on, it is also found in other kinds of sentences.

The regular and usual order of the interrogative sentence is, however, sometimes changed, generally with some change of meaning. Thus, a sentence in the assertive order is often made interrogative simply by the tone in which it is uttered: for example,

Sometimes changed, with change of meaning.

He is not gone yet? He will put up where?

which sentences may express surprise, as if

Is it possible that he is not gone yet?

or may be equivalent to a request for the repetition of a statement not understood, as if

Where did you say that he will put up?

or something of the kind.

The assertive and the interrogative sentence, therefore, shade off into each other.

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE.

51. The imperative sentence, expressing a command, requirement, or request, has for its characteristic a form of the verb, which takes the same adjuncts, or modifiers, as one of the other verbal forms, but is not, in our present English, marked by a distinct sign. Examples are

Other ways of expressing a command, etc.

Give it to me; Leave the room; Go home.

But this form of sentence is by no means the only one by which a speaker signifies a command or a demand, or seeks to control or to influence the action of another. As will be seen later, nearly the same meaning can be conveyed by assertive sentences like

Thou shalt go; You must give; He shall obey me; No one will speak till I return; You will all be sure to go.

Sometimes, indeed, *will* may be used in a question which is really a request, for we enquire as to the will of the person addressed: thus,

Will you kindly do it for me ?

You *will* be sure not to forget it ?

You *will* be sure to be there, *will* you not ?

The imperative, the assertive, and the interrogative sentence, therefore, shade into one another.

Imperative
shades off
into
wishes, etc.

52. The direct command of the imperative sentence shades off into expressions of more or less forcible or imperative wish, or desire, or imprecation; and then, as will be seen later, we use other forms of the verb, especially in the archaic and the poetic style and in certain well established phrases. Examples are

Part we in friendship from your land ; The Lord *bless* thee ;
Well, then, *be* it so ; *Perish* the thought ; O, that he *were*
with us ! *May* we *part* in peace ; *May* the thought *perish* ;
Let us *part* in peace ; *Let* the thought *perish*.

As these examples show, the subject always follows the verb when we use *we* (otherwise we should value the sentence as an assertive one), and may either precede or follow it in the other cases (more often the latter).

But in expressing a wish in ordinary speech, we usually avoid the imperative type of sentence as being too formal, and use the assertive form: thus, for example,

I hope we may (or shall) part in peace ; I trust the
thought may perish.

THE EXCLAMATORY FORMS.

Effects of
emotion on
regular forms
of sentences.

53. Information, enquiry, and command (including demands, wishes, etc.,) expressed by the assertive, interrogative, and imperative sentences, are the established modes of communication; but along with each of these—more particularly the interrogative and the imperative sentences—some strong feeling may be expressed, such as surprise, admiration, approbation, etc.; thus turning it into an exclamation. Examples are

O King, thou canst not conquer !
Who could think so ! Perish the thought !

Such sentences are to be classified as *exclamatory* assertive, interrogative, or imperative. But, as these exclamatory sentences shade off into each other, it is often difficult to classify them: thus, for example, it is a matter of doubt whether we should use a note of interrogation or of exclamation in

Classes of sentences thus produced.

Who could ever have believed it!

The form of the exclamatory sentence sometimes seems to differ from the regular type: thus, for example,

How the mighty are fallen! That he should have done so!

But, as we shall see later, these are really incomplete sentences. Fully expressed, they would be

It is strange how the mighty are fallen; *I am surprised* that he should have done this.

So that such subordinate forms are due to the strong emotion of the speaker. Indeed, we sometimes find an exclamation which consists of an interjection and a subordinate clause: thus,

Oh, that he should have done this!

THE COMPOSITION OF INTERROGATIVE AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

54. Like the assertive, the interrogative and imperative sentences may be simple, complex, compound, or compound-complex; interrogative and imperative clauses being used instead of the principal assertive clauses. But an interrogative or an imperative clause cannot be subordinate except in the case (a very rare one, in the interrogative) of a clause which resembles the descriptive adjective (23), as it is simply an addition: thus,

Composition of all classes of sentences, the same.

He lives at Paris—*where is it possible you have never been?*
He will be here to-morrow, *when please call again.*

Often, however, we find the interrogative word in the subordinate clause, the order of the words in the principal clause being that of an interrogative sentence: thus, for example, in

Who do you say that he is? Where do you say he has gone?

IV.—WORDS AND THEIR COMPONENTS.

SOUNDS AND LETTERS.

The Spoken
Word, the
real word.

55. So far we have been considering the different kinds and relations of words, and of phrases, clauses and sentences, which are all composed of words. The word is the smallest part of our speech that has meaning in the expression of our thoughts, but the spoken word is, of course, the only real word: the written or printed word is merely its representation to the eye; and, as we shall see further on, it is, from various causes, often a very imperfect representation.

How Sounds
are produced.

Let us now consider by what means the sounds of our speech are produced. To utter any word, as, for instance, *ho*, we force the air from the lungs through the throat. If the vocal chords, which are stretched across the inside of the larynx, are kept apart so that the air may pass freely out, we have simply *breath*, as represented by the beginning of the first sound of *ho*. If, however, the vocal chords are brought together so as to vibrate, we have what we call *voice*, as represented by *o*, the second sound of *ho*.

Breath and
Voice.

Vocal
Organs.

If, again, we utter such a word as *slaving*, we find that we use the larynx, tongue, teeth, lips, palate, and the resonance chambers of the mouth and nose. These organs are, therefore, called the *vocal organs*, or *organs of speech*; for they are used in uttering our speech-sounds.

Two classes
of sounds:

56. We will now see how the organs of speech are used in forming the sounds of our language.

Vowels and
Consonants.

The word *foe* evidently consists of two sounds; and, if we prolong each by itself in a whisper, we find that the first, represented by *f*, is a strong, rustling sound, produced by forcing the breath through a narrow slit between the lower lip and the upper teeth; while, in the sound represented by *oe*, no

rustling is perceptible; there is no audible friction and the breath passes out freely. If, again, we pronounce separately the sounds of *at*, as before no rustling is perceptible in the first, represented by *a*; but, in the second, represented by *t*, the breath is first stopped and then allowed to pass through with the rustling. On the basis of the degree of the obstruction of the breath by the organs of speech, we may, therefore, classify sounds into *consonants*, which have audible friction with or without a stoppage of the breath; and *vowels*, in which the breath passes through freely.

Basis of classification of sounds.

CONSONANTS.

57. The next step in our analysis is to find out how the organs of speech are placed to produce the different kinds of sounds. Let us first consider some of the consonants.

How the breath is modified to produce different consonants.

If we pronounce *bat* and *keg*, considering the first and the last sound of each, we find that the *b* sound is made by closing the lips and then separating them after *stopping* the breath entirely for an instant, and that the *t* sound is made similarly by putting the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth, just behind the teeth. In the *k* and the *g* sound, again, the breath is stopped by drawing the tongue back against the soft palate. Such sounds are called *stop-consonants*, or *stops*.

Now let us contrast the first and the last sound of *fat*. The *f* sound may be *continued* or prolonged at will, but the *t* sound cannot be continued. Consonant sounds that may be continued at will are called *continuants*. In this way we divide all consonants into *stops* and *continuants*, the classification depending on whether the breath passage is wholly closed or only narrowed.

On this basis consonants are classed as Stops and Continuants.

Now observe what happens when we pronounce the *m* of *mat*. The breath is stopped by the lips, but is allowed to find its way out through the *nose*. Such sounds as the *m* sound of *mat* are called *nasals*.

Sub-classes:
(1). Nasals.

Now pronounce the *l* sound of *law*. We find that the tongue presses against the hard palate, and

(2). Side-consonants.

the breath continues to find its way out along the *sides* of the tongue. Such sounds are, accordingly, called *side*, or *lateral*, consonants.

(3). Trills.

Next pronounce the *r* in *aright*, and the tip of the tongue strikes against the hard palate and rebounds and vibrates. Such a consonant is a sort of combination of stop and continuant, and, from its *trilling*, or rapid vibration, is called a *trill*.

(4). Fricatives.

If, again, we prolong the sound of *v* in *vat*, of *th* in *their*, or of *sh* in *shall*, we notice a very strong buzzing sound in *v* and *th*, and a strong hissing sound in *sh*. From this buzzing or hissing, such sounds are called *fricatives*.

Where the modification of the breath takes place.

58. So far we have divided consonants into *stops* and *continuant*s, with special classes called *nasals*, *laterals*, *trills*, and *fricatives*; basing our classification on *how* the breath is modified as it is forced out of the lungs. We will now especially examine *where* this modification takes place.

On this basis consonants are classed as:

(1). Lip.

(2). Lip-teeth.

(3). Tongue-teeth.

(4). Tongue.

(5). Hard-Palatals.

(6). Soft-Palatals.

(7). Throat.
Glottal stop.

Pronounce the sounds represented by the heavy type in *pat*, *bat*, *mat*, *when*, *were*, and we see that they are all formed by the *lips*. Hence, they are called *lip* consonants, or *labials*. For a similar reason, the *f* sound in *fat* and the *v* sound in *vat* are called *lip-teeth* consonants, or *labio-dentals*. So, too, the letters in heavy type in *thin* and *then* are examples of *tongue-teeth* consonants; in *to*, *do*, *no*, *so*, *zone*, *shown*, *love*, of *tongue* consonants, or *linguals* (because they are formed by the tip of the tongue acting against the hard palate just behind the teeth); in *you*, of *hard palatal* consonants; in *keg* and *sing*, of *soft palatal* consonants; and in *hat*, of a *throat* consonant, or *guttural*, together with the so-called *glottal* stop, formed by the sudden closing and opening of the *glottis*, that is, the space between the vocal chords. The glottal stop is a rare sound in English, being heard only at the beginning of a strongly-stressed initial sound; as, for example, at the beginning of *Am I?*, spoken very forcibly and indignantly. It has no letter, or other orthographical sign, to represent it.

59. Finally, prolong by itself, the *f* sound of *fail* alternately with the *v* of *vail*, at the same time holding the hand firmly pressed upon the top of the head, or stopping the ears with the fingers. We are at once aware of a vibration, or humming sound, in the *v*, which is absent in the *f*; while the sounds are otherwise the same. The sensation we feel is produced by the vibration of the vocal chords which causes the bony structure of the head to vibrate also. Consonants having the vibration are said to be *voiced*, and those without it to be *voiceless*.

Consonants
with vibra-
tion, Voiced;
without,
Voiceless.

TABLE OF CONSONANTS.

60. The following table shows the different classes of consonants, the letters representing the sounds being indicated by italics in the examples given :

	STOPS.		NASALS.		LATERALS.		TRILLS.		FRICATIVES.	
	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiceless.	Voiced.
THROAT									house	*
SOFT-PALATE	book	gag	sing							
HARD-PALATE										
TONGUE	tip	dip	nip	lily	bring				yes	ear
									sharp	azure
									sown	zone
TONGUE-TEETH									thin	than
LIP-TEETH									fat	vat
LIP	pad	bad	mad						where	were

*The Glottal Stop belongs here. †The sounds of *ch* in *church* and of *j* in *jet* are really double, being made up of *t*, as in *tip*, and *sh*, as in *sharp*; and of *d*, as in *dip*, and *z*, as in *azure*.

VOWELS.

All vowels,
voiced.

61. Let us now compare more fully some of the consonants with some of the vowels.

Prolong alternately the first and the second sound of the word *foe*, repeating at the same time the experiment of holding the hand upon the top of the head or of stopping the ears. The vibration will be felt for the second sound, but not for the first. Now perform the same experiment with the word *lo*, and the vibration will be felt in both sounds. So, too, with the sounds represented by the heavy letters in *ah*, *eh*, *oh*, *coo*, and *it*. And it will be found that, while, as we have seen, some consonants are voiceless and others voiced, all the vowels are voiced.

Classification
based on
position of
the tongue.

(1). Back.

(2). Front.

(3). Mixed.

62. In examining the vowel sounds, let us notice first the position of the tongue when we utter them. If we pronounce alternately the *ee* sound of *see* and the *oo* sound of *school*, we find that the tongue is brought forward towards the teeth to pronounce *ee*, and backwards towards the throat to pronounce *oo*. So, too, in the case of *a* of *fate* and the *ow* of *low*, and of the *a* of *man* and the *aw* of *law*. Vowels requiring the tongue to be drawn *back* for their formation are called *back* vowels, while those requiring it to be thrust *forward* are called *front* vowels. Those, again, which, like the *e* in *the man* require no definite movement of the root or of the front part of the tongue, are called *mixed*, or *neutral*, vowels.

(4). High.

(5). Low.

(6). Mid.

If, now, we pronounce consecutively the *oo* of *school*, the *ow* of *low*, and the *aw* of *law*, we see that the root of the tongue sinks a step, as it were, between each sound and the next; and, if we reverse the order, the root of the tongue will rise a step between each sound. Similarly, also, with the front part of the tongue in the series—the *ee* of *see*, the *e* of *met*, and the *a* of *man*. Vowels like the *ee* of *see*, requiring the tongue to be raised to the full extent, are called *high* vowels; those requiring it to be lowered to the full extent, *low* vowels; and those requiring the intermediate position, *mid* vowels.

63. Let us now note the action of the lips when we utter the vowels. If we pronounce consecutively the sounds indicated by the heavy type in *see*, *set*, *father*, *awful*, *low*, and *school*, we find that the opening of the lips varies in shape from an elongated oval in the *ee* of *see*, to a widened oval in the *a* of *father*; and finally, to a round small opening in the *oo* of *school*, with protrusion of the lips as if for whistling. Vowels like the *aw* of *awful*, the *ow* of *low*, the *oo* of *school*, which require the contraction and protrusion of the lips, are called *rounded*, or *labialized*, vowels.

Classification based on action of the lips.

(1). Rounded.

If, again, we pronounce consecutively the sound of *ee* in *see*, and that of *i* in *it*, we find that the tongue seems much tenser in forming the *ee* sound than in forming the *i* sound, but that otherwise there is little or no difference in the way they are formed. This difference is denoted by calling *narrow* those vowels which, like the *ee* of *see*, are pronounced with greater tension, and *wide*, those which, like the *i* of *it*, are pronounced with less.

(2). Narrow.

(3). Wide.

64. If we utter very slowly the *i* in *hive* and the *ow* of *how*, we find that the sound of each changes while being uttered, ending in a sound different from that with which it began: thus, the beginning of the sound of *i* in *hive* is like that of the *a* in *bath*, gliding into the sound of *ee* in *see*. So, too, the sound of *ow* in *how* begins like that of the *a* in *father*, gliding into that of the *oo* in *school*. When two vowels are thus uttered together, the combination is called a *diphthong*.

Diphthongs, combinations of vowels.

65. The distinctions made so far amongst vowels are distinctions of *quality*. If, now, we compare the sound of *a* in *hat* and of *a* in *father*, we find that it takes longer time to pronounce the latter than the former. So, too, with the *o* in *not* and the *o* in *note*, and with the *e* in *hen* and the *e* in *scene*. This difference is called one of *quantity*; and, on this basis, vowels like the *a* in *hat* are called *short*, while those like the *a* of *father* are called *long*. There is, however, no sharp dividing line between the times given to the pronunciation of vowels.

Quality and Quantity of vowels.

TABLE OF VOWELS.

66. The results of the preceding observations in regard to vowel-sounds may be summarized in a table of oblong shape, representing roughly the space contained by the mouth. As before, the letters representing the sounds are in italics. The positions of these letters show the relative positions of the utterance of the sounds the letters represent:

HORIZONTAL MOVEMENT OF THE TONGUE.

FRONT	BACK.
see																who
bier, fit																doer
city																to
let																
there																ore, obey, oh
fat																won
bath																ah
																all, not
Long Horizontal Opening. Full Opening Protruded and Contracted.																

CHANGES IN THE POSITION OF THE LIPS.

*e as in "the man."

TONGUE ELEVATION.

Since a diphthong terminates in a sound different from that with which it begins, the diphthongs cannot properly be represented in a table such as the above. The following are diphthongs: *a* in *fate* (beginning like *e* of *let* and ending like *i* in *fit*), *i* in *high* (bath . . . fit), *oi* in *oil* (all . . . fit), *ou* in *out* (ah . . . to). The sounds of *ee* in *see* and *o* in *who* are also diphthongal, gliding respectively into the consonantal sound of *y* as in *yes* and of *w* as in *we*; but they are placed in the above table, as their position presents no difficulty.

Diphthongs.

LETTERS.

67. From the preceding tables of consonants and vowels we see that our language has over forty elementary sounds. As, however, our alphabet has really only twenty-three letters (*c*, *q*, and *j* being redundant) many of these sounds have no special letters to represent them. This is especially true of the vowels, which have only five letters. Our spelling is, consequently, very irregular. The same letter often represents different sounds; thus, for example, the *a* in *father*, *all*, *ale*, *at*, *ask*, *what*, and *many*; and the *c* in *cat*, *cease*, and *tenacious*; and the same sound is often represented by different letters; thus, for example, the *sh* sound in *show* is represented by the letters in heavy type in *fashion*, *Asia*, *sugar*, *mission*, *issue*, *conscience*, *nation*, *officiate*, *ocean*, *ancient*, *pinch*, *schedule*, *fuchsia*, *pshaw*, *vitiate*, and *moustache*; and the *e* of *let*, by the letters in heavy type in *Aetna*, *again*, *says*, *breadth*, *heifer*, *leopard*, *friend*, and *bury*. The causes of these irregularities will be seen later when we take up, in greater detail, the history of the language.

The Alphabet, defective, redundant, and irregular.

SOUNDS IN COMBINATION.

68. So far we have been considering the formation of the separate sounds: it must not, however, be inferred from what has been said of the action of the organs of speech, that there is a sharp distinction between all consecutive sounds. When we *articulate* our words (that is, when we fit or *join* together the sounds, by alternating vowels and consonants), our vocal organs are moving continuously, and there are

Consecutive sounds, not always sharply separated.

Glides.

really certain transitional sounds, or *glides*, by which we usually pass or *glide* from one sound to another. Thus, for example, such a sound may be distinguished between *k* and *ey* in *key*; but not between *n* and *d* in *hand*, and *c* and *t* in *act*.

Combinations in a word.

Combinations of sounds which consist of a vowel either alone, as in *a*, the first sound of *attack*, or along with one or more consonants, as in *puls* of *repulsed*, and which are uttered with one impulse, are called *syllables*. A syllable may be even wholly consonantal in sound; for example, the second syllable of *a-ble*, in which the *e* is mute and the *bl* forms the syllable. A word consisting of one such combination of sounds is called a *monosyllable*; of two, a *dissyllable*; of three, a *trisyllable*; and of more than three, a *polysyllable*. In printing, however, the division of words into syllables is largely a matter of usage: thus, for example, *attack* is divided *at-tack* although there is only one *t*-sound.

Classes of Syllables.

How printed.

Breath-groups.

And, further, although we represent each word separately in print, words are not so separated in speech. In such a sentence, for instance, as

The attack was fierce, but they repulsed the enemy,
what we utter may be represented thus:

The-attack-was-fierce, . . . but-they-repulsed-the-enemy;
that is, our words really divide themselves, not into the "parts of speech," but into groups of connected sounds. These groups are called *breath-groups*, because each is uttered by one continuous effort of the vocal organs. In reading or speaking, of course, the connection amongst words of a breath-group is not equally close; thus, for example, if *attack* is emphatic it is not pronounced in so close connection with *was* as *was* is with *fierce*; but, notwithstanding, there is not, in such a case, the stoppage of the action of the vocal organs which always takes place at the end of a breath-group.

Force on a syllable: Word- and Sentence-Stress.

Again, when we pronounce a word of more than one syllable as, for example, *repulsed*, we note that *puls*, one of the syllables, is pronounced with

more force than the others. So, too, when we pronounce a breath-group, as, for example, the second breath-group above, the word *repulsed* has more force on its syllable *puls* than have the other words of the breath-group on any of their syllables. In both cases, this force is called *stress*; in the case of the *word*, it is called *word-stress*; and, in the case of the *breath-group*, *sentence-stress*.

CHANGES IN SOUND.

69. Although the sound of a word is the real word (55), the sound itself is only a representation of an idea, just as the written word is the representation of the sound. Now, we learn to speak in childhood by unconscious imitation. If we always heard correctly and imitated exactly, our sounds would remain the same from generation to generation. As, however, a slight change in the position of the organs of speech will change a sound, and especially as we usually do what we have to do in the easiest and shortest way possible, we often imitate inexactly what we hear; so that changes are always creeping in, like the differences between our pronunciation and that of the people of England, Ireland, Scotland, or the United States. This tendency to change is kept in check by the necessity for making ourselves understood and by the tendency to conform to the speech of those around us. Nowadays, of course, our literature also tends to keep our language fixed. So great, indeed, are the differences between our sounds and those even of the time of Queen Elizabeth, not to speak of the time of King Alfred, that, if one of Shakespeare's plays were now acted with the pronunciation current in his time, it would be difficult, if not impossible, for us to understand it.

Since changes of sound depend upon the tendencies noted above, they are made according to general laws, modified, of course, by circumstances: thus, for example, our *stone*, pronounced by the Anglo-Saxons *stán* (a like that of *father*) owes its present sound to the tendency to pronounce a back

Changes of sound continually going on: Causes and restriction.

Changes made according to general laws, modified by circumstances.

vowel without opening the mouth fully, and so to round it; whereas the *w* before the *a* in the O. E. *twá* has given us the modern *two*, owing to the lip-rounding of the *w* prolonging itself into the following sound. The history of the development of our sounds is a difficult subject, and, in most of its details, it is beyond the needs of a school course. There are, however, certain forces that have been powerful agencies in producing changes of sound. The most important of these we need to examine if we are to understand, even in a general way, how our language came to be what it now is.

CHANGES DUE TO STRESS.

The presence of Stress on part of a combination implies less force on the rest.

70. One of the most important forces is *stress*—both *word*-stress and *sentence*-stress. Its presence, of course, implies a less degree of force in the utterance of the other sounds of the word or breath-group affected; so that, while one part of the combination of sounds may be affected by its presence, the rest may be affected by its diminution or its absence.

Why its present action escapes notice.

And, first, since our spelling is now practically fixed, the present results from stress often escape our notice; for, when we think of a word, we have in mind its printed form, not its sound. Thus, for instance, if we say “*The word the is an adjective,*” the *e*’s of the two *the*’s have quite different sounds, although the printed words are the same; and we say *cubburd* although we spell the word *cupboard*. Hence, it is in the earlier stages of the language that we must look for the most marked effects of this agency.

Effects best seen in the earlier stages of the language.

Word-stress, characteristic of English, and now towards beginning of words. Its effects.

(1). First, then, as to word-stress. In English this is so strong as to be characteristic of the language; and, in Modern English, it has regularly tended towards the beginning of the word. Accordingly, the sounds of words borrowed from other languages have often changed: thus, we have obtained

raison < M.E. *résoun* < O.Fr. *raisun*, riches < M.E. and Fr. *richesse*,
balcony < the older *balcóny* < It. *balcone*.

And, when the length of the word is increased, an

original long sound is apt to become short, especially when followed by several consonants. Examples are

throttle < *throat-le*; bonfire < *bone-fire*; holiday < *holy-day*;
width < *wide-th*; birth < *bear-th*; gosling < *goose-ling*;
twopence pr. *tuppence*; breakfast pr. *brekfast*.

Weakness or the absence of word-stress produces changes not less important; for the effect of the strong stress in English has been to lessen the stability of the unstressed part, whether before or after the stressed part, by causing the sounds to be articulated indistinctly or to disappear.

Effects of weakness or absence of word-stress.

A long sound is often shortened: thus,

wisdom < *wise-dōm*; Sutton < *South-town*; daisy < *day's eye*;
sheriff < *shire-reeve*; kitten < *M.E. kiton*, or *kitoun*.

A vowel or syllable may disappear: thus,

van < *Fr. avant*; lark < *O. E. lāwerce*; fortnight < *fourteen-night*;
loved < *lovèd*; man's < *O. E. mannès*; lone < *alone*;
Gloucester and Wednesday pr. *Gloster* and *Wensday*.

(2). Secondly, as to sentence-stress. This depends upon the importance of the idea, and so moves freely from one word to another as may be required. Thus, for example, according as we place the stress on the *do* or the *you* in "How do you do?" we have as follows: "How-doo-you-do?" and "How-dū-you-do?" So, too, when we say "I saw him," the *h* is not sounded; whereas, in "I saw *him* but not *her*," it is sounded. This influence has given us

Sentence-stress moves freely: its effects.

won't < *will not*, through the older *wolnot* or *wonot*;
thorough < *M. E. thuruh* < *O. E. thurh*;
too < *to*; off < *of*; then < *than*.

Weakness or the absence of sentence-stress also produces important changes. If, for instance, as above, we utter the two breath-groups: "*The-word-the-is-an-adjective*," the unstressed *the* is pronounced *thū*, and the stressed one *thee*. Sounds may even drop out altogether, as, for instance, when we say, *haven't* for *have not*, *I'd* for *I would*, *I'll* for *I will*. So, too, an ordinary pronunciation of the breath-group *a-cup-of-tea* may be represented by *a-cup-a-tea*.

Effects of weakness or absence of sentence-stress.

Vowel-gradation due to word-stress.

Both sentence-stress and word-stress have played other important parts in the history of our language; the former in the development of relational words, and the latter in the modification or destruction of O. E. word-endings. One other result of word-stress needs special notice here. If, for instance, we take the verb forms, *begin*, *began*, *begun*, we see that the framework, so to speak, is the same in each; but that the stressed vowels are different, forming the series of steps or *grades* from front to back, *i*, *a*, and *u*. This is, accordingly, known as *vowel-gradation* (in German, *ablaut*, or "off-sound"). How these forms originated we cannot, of course, know for certain, but there is strong reason for believing that they are closely connected with word-stress. Nothing of precisely the same nature takes place at present: the grounds for this explanation of the origin of these forms are best seen in the earlier stages of the language. We may, however, illustrate the effects of word-stress upon vowels by what takes place as the result of sentence-stress. If, for instance, we repeat the sentence "He can go," stressing a different word each time, we get different sounds for *can*: thus,

Hé-*cun*-go, He-*cán*-go, AND He-*c'n*-gó OR He-*kin*-gó.

In some way like this, originated not only such verb-forms as *begin*, *began*, *begun*, but other word-forms also, as, for instance,

burn, brimstone (<bren-stone), brand, brindle, brine;
bear, Sc. bairn, bier, barrow, barm (old word =
"lap"), O. E. bearn (= "hero").

Different forms led to differences of meaning.

And these different forms, produced in the early stages of the language when there was less fixity of form than at present, have been used with different meanings; for the more cultured a people, the more specialized do their words become.

Vowel-gradation in other Arian languages.

While Gradation is found chiefly in some of the Teutonic languages, similar alterations in the vowel-sounds are found in other Arian languages. Thus, for example, we have in Greek the verb-forms: *leip-ein* (to leave), *le-loip-a*, *e-lip-on*; the noun *leip-sis*, the adjective *loip-os*, and many

compounds beginning with *lip-o*; and, in Latin, the verb *fid-o* (to trust), and the nouns *fid-es* and *foed-us*.

CHANGES DUE TO ASSOCIATION.

71. The second most common force is found in the nature of the sounds associated with a given sound; that is, a sound may be altered as the result of the company in which it finds itself. This may be known as *association*; and, like stress, it shows itself in various ways, both when it acts along with stress and when it acts without it.

(1). If we utter the breath-groups "his-name" and "his-style" rapidly as in ordinary speech, the *s* is voiced in the first (where the *n* is also voiced) but voiceless in the second (where the *s* also is voiceless). So, too, when spoken carelessly, the breath-group "I-have-to-go" becomes "I-haf-to-go", and "I-don't-mind," "I-dom-mind." Similarly we have *lissom* and *gossip* from the O.E. *lithe-some* and *god-sib*. In these examples, we have combined separate words; and, as is usual in such cases, it is the first word that has become altered.

Effects of Association on consonants:

(1). When we combine separate words.

If now to *cat* and *dog* we add *s*, its sound is voiceless with the voiceless *t*, but voiced with the voiced *g*. So, too, when we add *-ed* to *look* and to *love*, its sound is the voiceless *t* with the first, but the voiced *d* with the second. Here, however, as is usual, the alteration takes place in the added part, which is of less importance as it does not represent a notion.

(2). When we add an ending to a word.

In all the foregoing examples, we avoid unconsciously the trouble of changing the position of the organs of speech, and so the sounds are made similar; that is, voiced consonants go with voiced, and voiceless with voiceless. This process is known by the special name of *assimilation*.

Cause of Assimilation.

Vowels also undergo assimilation. An old form, for instance, of our word *English* (pr. *Inglish*) was *Angle-isc*. Here the *i* of *isc* first fronted (62) the preceding *ngl*, and these consonants then fronted the preceding *a*, turning it first into *e* and then into *i*,

Effects of association on vowels: Cause of Mutation.

although the spelling *English* does not follow the pronunciation (9). This change in a stressed vowel caused by a vowel in the following syllable of the same word, is called *vowel-mutation* (in German, *umlaut*, or "about-sound"), and the vowel itself is said to be *mutated*. In Old English, several vowels and even palatal consonants could produce vowel-mutation: but the most important mutations are the front ones, caused by the Teutonic *i* and *j*, (*j* pr. as *y* in *yes*), which were usually dropped or modified after they had produced mutation. Thus, for example, *French* was first *Francish* and then *Frencish*; and the *i* of the *-ish* finally disappeared, producing what is, therefore, known as *concealed* mutation.

Neither
gradation nor
mutation
now active.

Other
changes
caused by
association.

Like gradation, mutation is not now an active principle; but, as will be seen further on, it was an important one in the early history of the language.

(2). Besides assimilation, other changes are made in associated sounds where we find it difficult or disagreeable to pronounce them together. Occasionally, however, these changes seem to be the result of whim, or of errors of utterance which, from some cause or other, were made, and repeated by many speakers in the same community. Here, also, we must look for examples in the earlier stages of the language. Examples are

murder < older *murther*; wasp < O.E. *wæps*; yarn < O.E. *gearn*;
furrow < O.E. *furh*; apricot < older *apricock*;
gender < O.Fr. *genre*; whils-*t* < M.E. *whiles*.

CHANGES DUE TO ANALOGY.

72. So far we have been considering the conditions under which changes have taken place in individual sounds. Such changes deal simply with the sounds as such. The form of a word may, however, be affected when we take notice of it as the sign of an idea. This tendency is well seen when a child is learning to speak. Finding that the commonest way of expressing past action is by using words like *loved*, *played*, *walked* (that is, by adding the sound of *d* to *love*, *play*, *walk*) he says *gived*, *runned*, *striked*, when he wants to express as past the actions of giving, running, and striking.

Changes in
form due to
meaning.
Illustrations
from
childhood.

Similarly, meaning more than one, he says, in the case of nouns, *gooses*, *mans*, *tooths*; when comparing the qualities of objects, he says, in the case of adjectives, *gooder*, *goodest*, and *badder*, *baddest*; and so on. What takes place here is this: he first groups together in his mind words that are similar in form or in use, as, for instance, the verb-forms expressing past time; and, finding that a word belonging to this group has undergone a certain change of form to express a certain change of meaning, he forms in the same way all the new words he has to use to express the same change of meaning; that is, he finds it easier to form words after what his experience tells him is the common type. This force is called *analogy* (that is, "resemblance"), and words formed under its influence are said to be formed by analogy.

How Analogy acts.

(1). Analogy has been and still is a very powerful force. As will be seen later, not only has it produced classes of words, as, for example, verb forms ending in *-ed*, but it has altered forms that were once established, as, for example, forms of nouns expressing more than one. In Old English there were several ways of expressing this meaning; but, by the influence of the very common forms in *-s*, almost all nouns expressing more than one came in time to be formed in the same way, only a few survivals of the other ways being now in use; as, for example,

Analogy has produced some classes of words and has altered others.

oxen < *ox*, children < *child*, men < *man*, and geese < *goose*.

(2). Besides classes of words, analogy affects single words also, producing occasionally some curious results, not only in the sounds and the written forms of words, but in their written forms alone. Thus, for example, we have *rhyme* for *rime*, because *rime* was connected in the mind with *rhythm*; *righteous* for the older *rightwise* (that is, "wise as to what is right"), because *-eous* is a common ending for adjectives; *sovereign* for the older *soverran*, from its association with *reign*; *wormwood* for the O.E. *vermód*, although the word has no connection in meaning with either *worm* or *wood*: the modern form is due to a mere fancied resemblance of the sounds.

It has also affected the sounds and forms of single words.

How it acts
amongst the
uneducated.

The transformation seen in *sovereign* (part of the word being altered) and in *wormwood* (all the word being altered), in which a word not understood is transformed so as to have some resemblance to a well-known word or words, is especially known as *Folk*, or *Popular, Etymology*; for, as might be expected, the operation of this force among the uneducated causes many mistakes—mistakes, which, owing to modern conditions (9), usage no longer makes correct, as it did in early times in the case of *wormwood* and *sovereign*.

THE PRINCIPLE OF EASE.

73. We have now learned that the most important causes of change in the sounds and forms of words are of two kinds:

(1). Those that affect the sounds considered simply as sounds. These are stress and association, and are classed together as *phonetic* (that is, “concerned with *sound*”).

(2). Those that affect the sounds or forms of words when their meanings or sounds have been considered in connection with those of other words. These are classed under *analogy*.

The funda-
mental cause
of phonetic
and
analogical
changes.

And, if we consider the examples given above with a view to discover the fundamental cause of the changes, we find that it is *Economy of Effort*, or, as it is also called, the *Principle of Ease*; for the tendency to do what is to be done, in the easiest and shortest way possible, is characteristic of mankind.

CHANGES IN MEANING.

Meaning and
Form, some-
times closely
connected.

74. Changes in the meaning of words are not so important in grammar as changes in form (35). They are, however, important from the point of view of language; and, as we have already seen (35 and 72), there is sometimes an intimate connection between the meaning and the form. We will, therefore, now consider the chief influences that produce changes in meaning; that is, the substitution of new meanings or the addition of other ones.

Change in meaning, like change in sound, is a law of a living language (5). In the one case we imitate inexactly the sounds we hear; in the other we use words in senses different from the usual ones; and, in both, the differences become established, for a time at least, owing to their repeated use by different individuals. And even more than in sound-change, meaning-change is due to many different influences, some of which are so subtle that it is impossible to make a complete classification. Two, however, are of chief importance:

Change in meaning, a law of a living language.

(1). As a nation advances in civilization, its ideas become more definite, and numerous distinctions have to be made. Hence, not only are additional words needed, but, as the number increases, the meaning of each becomes more *contracted*, or *specialized*. Thus, for example, *furlong*, originally *furrow-long*, is now a definite measure of distance; so, too, *spice*, originally *species*, "a kind", now usually means a particular "kind". This principle is known as *contraction*, or *specialization*: it is by far the most common cause of change in meaning. Other examples are

Two chief influences:

(1). Contraction.

pay < M. E. *paien* < Lat. *pacare*, "to pacify";
corpse < M. E. *corps* < Lat. *corpus*, "a body";
starve < M. E. *sterven* < O. E. *steorfan*, "to die."

(2). But we have also many words that have become more *extended* in their application. Thus *privilege* originally meant "a law relating to an individual"; and *decimate*, "to select by lot every tenth man for punishment." Other examples are

(2). Extension.

legion < Lat. *legion-em*, "a division of a Roman army";
pomp < Gr. *pomp-e*, "a solemn religious procession";
company < Fr. *compagnon* < Lat. *com*, "together," and
panis, "bread"; so originally "a mess-fellow."

To the foregoing influences may be added the following:

Other influences:

(1). Words are used in figurative senses: thus,

(1). Figurative uses.

He has a fine *taste* for literature; Duty *spurs* him on;
a man of *letters*; the white *flower* of a blameless life.

Next to contraction and extension, this is the most important influence.

(2). Change in meaning accompanies change in the object.

(2). Words change their meanings with a change in the things they denote. Thus, for example, *volume* originally meant "a roll"; for, before the age of printing, the long written sheets of papyrus and like material were rolled up when not in use. So, too, *book* < O. E. *bóc*, "a beech tree"; the inner bark and beech slabs being used as paper. Similarly

ballot, "a little *ball*"; baize, "*bay*-colored coarse cloth";
bugle, "the horn of the *bugle*, or wild ox,"

have acquired their present meanings.

The names of sects, and political parties are also illustrations.

(3). Degradation.

(3). Words become degraded in meaning. Sometimes this is due to our desire to palliate the offensiveness or wickedness of what they denote. Thus, for example, *plain* and *ordinary* are often used for "ugly"; and *annexation*, for "robbery of territory by a nation." Sometimes, also, the change is due to historical influences. Thus, *villain*, originally "a serf in the *villa*, or farm, of his Norman master," acquired its present meaning from the low morality of the "villeins". So, too, with

churl < O. E. *ceorl*, "a rustic"; boor < Du. *boer*, "a farmer";
rascal < M. E. (< O. Fr.) *raskaille*, "the scrapings";
knave < O. E. *cnafa*, "a boy."

(4). Improvement.

(4). Less often a word improves in meaning. Thus, for example, *Christian* was at first a term of reproach used by the people of Antioch. Similarly

worship, "the condition of worth"; minister, "a servant";
generous, "well-born"; marshal, "a horse-servant,"

have acquired their present meanings.

More than one influence often at work.

75. As may be seen from some of the foregoing examples, not all these principles are mutually exclusive. The present meaning of a word is often the result of the operation of more than one of them. And further, although in the case of most of the foregoing examples, the old meaning has been supplanted by the new one, this is by no means what generally

takes place. The more original meaning generally remains; so that, as any dictionary will show, there are multitudes of words which have besides their usual and more original meanings, a number of other meanings which may be described, in contradistinction, as occasional. In sound-change, on the other hand, the new word almost always displaces the old one. The following, however, are examples of words which have retained both the new and the old form with, of course, a change of meaning:

The new word generally supplants the old one. The old meaning is generally retained with the new.

dyke, ditch < O.E. *dic*; dune, down < O.E. *dún*;
 jet, jut < O.Fr. *jetter*; levee, levy < Fr. *levée*;
 lone, alone < M.E. *al one*; lurk, lurch < M.E. *lurke*;
 person, parson < M.E. *persone*; too, to < O.E. *to* (70);
 naught, not (unstressed) < O.E. *náwiht*;
 sham (Northern), shame < O.E. *scamu*.

V.—WORD-FORMATION.

How our
vocabulary
is increased.

76. From time to time, we need new words or new forms of words to express new ideas or modifications of old ones. We have already seen (70 and 71) that gradation and mutation, now extinct as forces, were once active in providing part of the supply; and that, in all stages of the history of the language, we have borrowed words as we needed them, from other nations, so that now by far the largest part of our vocabulary is of foreign origin (7). We have next to consider in detail changes in the forms of words to make new words with different meanings or functions in the sentence, or with both different meanings and different functions.

DERIVATION.

BY SUFFIX.

(1). Deriva-
tion by Suffix,
with change
of function.

77. To the adjective *true* (32) we may add the sound *th*, making *truth*. In this new word, the notion of *true* is still evident; but the change which we have made has altered the meaning and turned the adjective into a noun.

Definitions of
Derived,
Derivation,
Derivative,
Primitive,
and Suffix.

In such a case as this, the noun is said to be *derived* from the adjective; the process of making it is called *derivation*; and it is itself called a *derivative*, or a derivative noun; and the word from which it is made is called its *primitive* (*primitive* means here "predecessor, more original"). And the addition *-th* that makes the derivative is called a noun-making *suffix* (*suffix* means something "fixed or fastened on at the end")

Derivatives
from *true*.

78. There are many nouns made from adjectives in our language by this suffix *-th*, often along with a change of sound in the adjective itself, to make easier the pronunciation of the derivative (71 [1] and 83): thus,

warmth < *warm*, width < *wide*, length < *long*, breadth < *broad*.

This derived noun *truth*, we can then turn again into an adjective, by adding to it the adjective-making suffix *-ful*: thus, *truthful*; the word means nearly, though not precisely, the same as *true*. It is plain here that what we call the suffix *-ful* is really nothing but the common adjective *full*, and that *truthful* is nearly the same as *full of truth*. And, indeed, there is good reason for believing that all our suffixes were, like *-ful*, once independent words which by the action of word-stress (70) have lost their original form and meaning and become mere relational word-elements (35), modifying in some way the meaning of the primitive.

Suffixes,
originally
independent
words.

But this derived adjective *truthful* we can turn into a noun by adding another noun-making suffix, namely *-ness*; thus, *truthfulness*. We might define *truthfulness* as "the quality of being truthful," just as *truth* sometimes means "the quality of being true."

The adjectives that are derived from nouns by adding *-ful* are numerous, but the nouns that are derived from adjectives by adding *-ness* are still more so.

79. Similarly, taking *foul* (really, the O. E. *fúl*) as our starting point, we may form *filth*, "the quality of being foul," or also "what is foul"; then, by another suffix than *-ful* for making adjectives from nouns, *filthy*, "marked with filth"; and, again, *filthiness*, "the quality of being filthy."

Derivatives
from *foul*.

Or, we might have added *-ness* directly to the primitive adjective *foul*, forming *foulness*, "the quality of being foul"; although we do not say *trueness*, any more than we say *truthy* like *filthy*, or *filthful* like *truthful*.

No real reason can be given for such differences; it is simply the case that the one has become customary, or what we are used to, and not the other.

No reason
assignable for
selection
of suffixes.

80. Again, both our adjectives *true* and *foul* we can turn into adverbs, by adding the adverb-making suffix *-ly*: thus, *truly*, *foully*. And we can treat in the same way the derived adjectives *truthful* and *filthy*: thus, *truthfully*, *filthily*.

Derivatives
by the
suffix *-ly*.

In fact, there are not many adjectives in the language from which we cannot derive adverbs by this adverb-making suffix, and a large part of our adverbs are made by it.

But the same suffix *-ly* also makes a considerable number of adjectives from nouns; thus, *womanly*, *manly*, *brotherly*.

Verbs from
nouns and
adjectives.

81. Verbs are also derived from nouns and adjectives by verb-making suffixes: thus, *freshen* is derived from the adjective *fresh*; *lengthen*, from the noun *length*.

Derivatives
from verbs.

And, on the other hand, derivatives are made by suffixes from verbs. Thus, from *suck* comes the noun *sucker*, meaning "one who sucks"; from *hinder* comes *hindrance*, "anything that hinders"; and so on.

And verbs in general form participles (33) in *-ing* and *-ed* or *-en*; those in *-ing* being called, from their meaning, *imperfect*; and those in *-ed* or *-en*, *perfect*: thus,

the *rising* sun; the *clouded* sun; the *hidden* sun.

82. In all our examples so far, the word derived by adding a suffix has been a different part of speech from the primitive; and that is in general the way in our language.

(2). Deriva-
tion by suffix,
without
change of
function.

But it is not always so. Thus, we have nouns derived from nouns; as *duckling*, "a little duck"; *brooklet*, "a small brook"; *kingdom*, "the realm of a king"; *knighthood*, "the rank of a knight." In this way also are formed the class of nouns called *gender-nouns*, by the addition of *-ess*; thus, for example,

countess < *count*; goddess < *god*; actress < *actor*.

Again, we have adjectives derived from adjectives; as *greenish*, *greener*, and *greenest* from *green*. The variation of the form of adjectives by adding *-er* or *-est* is a very common one. It expresses a greater and the greatest degree of the quality which the primitive adjective expresses (the *comparative* and *superlative degrees* of the adjective), when, from the nature of its meaning, such a variation of degree is possible and

when the derivative thus formed is easy to pronounce :
thus, for example,

a *tall* man, a *taller* man, the *tallest* man ;

but not

Frencher, *Frenchest*, or *admirabler*, *admirablest*.

A very few adverbs also have derivatives in *-er* and *-est* : thus, for example,

sooner, soonest < *soon* ; faster, fastest < *fast*.

83. Vowel-mutation, generally concealed, has also given us a number of derivatives. The following examples show the successive steps of their formation :

How derivatives are formed by vowel-mutation.

length < O. E. *long*, through *lang-i-tha* ; gild < O. E. *gold*,
through *gyld-an* (*gold-i-an*) ; first < O. E. *fyrst*, through
for-ist ; thimble < O. E. *thymal*, through *thum-i-la*.

BY PREFIX.

84. We have also derivative words formed by putting something before the primitive instead of after it. Thus a host of words of various kinds may have *un-* put before them, making a derivative which is the same part of speech, but of opposite meaning. For example, *untrue* and *untruthful* are adjectives, the opposite of *true* and *truthful* ; and *untruly* and *untruthfully* are adverbs, the opposites of *truly* and *truthfully*. We can also say *untruth*, though there are fewer nouns to which we add *un-* in this way. And verbs derived with *un-* (which is different in meaning from the *un-* before adjectives), like *undo* and *undress*, are still less common.

Derivation by Prefix, usually without change of function.

An addition thus made at the beginning of a word is called a *prefix* (*prefix* means "something fixed or fastened in front"). Prefixes are in English much less common than suffixes ; they do not ordinarily change the part of speech of the word to which they are added ; and no prefix, as we understand the word, now exists as a separate word. Other examples are

Definition of Prefix.

befall, *gainsay*, *recall*, *dishonest*, *mischance*, *coexist*,

WITHOUT CHANGE OF FORM.

85. But we often take a word which is generally used as one part of speech and convert it into another,

Functional Conversion.

without adding a suffix, or making any other such change of form as is characteristic of a derivative. Thus, many adjectives (32) are used as nouns: for example, *the good and the wicked*, meaning "good and wicked persons"; or *the good, the beautiful, and the true*, meaning "that which is good," etc.

Some adjectives do not add *-ly* to form adverbs, but are themselves used directly as adverbs; for example,

much, little, fast, long, ill.

Other adjectives add *-ly*, and are also sometimes used as adverbs without it; for example,

full, wide, late, hard, deep, sore;

as well as

fully, widely, lately, hardly, deeply, sorely.

Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives, as when we say "a *gold* watch," or "a *stone* wall," and both nouns and adjectives are turned into verbs: thus,

I *head* a rebellion; I *breast* the waves; I *eye* a scene;
The fruit *matures*; The work *wearied* him;
They *bettered* their condition.

May be whole
or partial.

This also is a kind of derivation, and is known as **functional conversion**. The conversion may, however, be whole or partial. It is whole, when the converted word assumes all the characteristics of the part of speech it has been turned into: thus, for example, we can say "He *headed* (or *heads*, or *will head*, &c.) a rebellion"; but, while we can say "The *good* are happy," we cannot say "The *goods* are happy." *Good*, in this case, is an example of partial conversion.

Why common
in Modern
English.

86. Functional conversion is a very common mode of increasing our vocabulary, owing to the fact that English words seldom have special forms to show that they are certain parts of speech: thus, for example, although *loves* and *loved* are limited in function owing to their endings, the word *love* may be a noun, as "*my love*"; or a verb, as "*I love*"; or an adjective, as "*love gift*." Indeed, after the close of the M. E. period, as the immediate result of the

disappearance of the O. E. word-endings, functional conversion was very common: thus, for example, we find in Shakespeare, such expressions as

A *seldom* pleasure; They *askance* their eyes;
The *backward* and abysm of time.

And nowadays the same tendency is showing itself very strongly: thus, for example, we hear people talk of *wintering* and *summering*, and even of *dinnering* and *suppering*. The verbs *to winter* and *to summer* are found in literary English, and the others may also become established.

COMPOSITION.

87. Sometimes, again, we put the words together in such a way that they form but a single word. Examples are

blackberry, grass-plot, gentleman, washtub, highborn.

Such a word is called a *compound*; the parts are said to be *compounded*; and the putting together is called *composition* (which means simply "putting together").

There are great numbers of compound words in English, and we are all the time making new ones. Sometimes the compounded words stand in the compound just as they would in a sentence, and seem simply to have grown into one word: such are

gentleman, bridesmaid, man-of-war, ticket-of-leave.

Compounds like *man-of-war*, of which a phrase forms a part and one element of which may be inflected, as *men-of-war*, are called *phrase-compounds*. Ordinary phrases, on the other hand, besides not being written as one word, differ from phrase-compounds in freely allowing the introduction of a different expression which is the functional equivalent of what it displaces. Thus, we may turn "on *my* account" into "on *his* (or *John's*) account," or into "on *my brother John's* account." The term, phrase-compound, however, is also used loosely to include what are really sentences, as *forget-me-not*, or parts of sentences, as *would-be* (as, for example, in "a *would-be* grammarian").

Definitions of Compound, Compounded, and Composition.

How compounds are formed.

Difference between ordinary phrases and phrase-compounds.

How the parts of a compound are usually related.

88. But much more often the parts of the compound have such a relation to each other that, if we used them separately, we should have to change their order, or insert other words to connect them, or make use of both these expedients: thus *housetop* is "the top of a house," *headache* is "an ache in the head," *heartrending* is "rending the heart," *blood-red* is "red like blood," *knee-deep* is "deep up to the knee," *wash-tub* is a "tub to wash in," *drawbridge* is a "bridge made to draw up," *steamboat* is a "boat that goes by steam"; and so on. Other examples are

sheep-shearing, walkingstick, horse-soldier, trustworthy, manlike, foolhardy, law-abiding, to whitewash.

Then, there are cases in which the relation of the parts is still more peculiar: thus a *pickpocket* is a "person who picks-pockets," a *tell-tale* is "one who tells tales," a *redcoat* is "one who wears a red-coat." Other examples are

turnkey, cut-throat, fire-office, godsend, windfall, afternoon.

The nature of a compound.

89. A compound is thus, a shortened description of something. Though really made up of more than one part, it comes to seem only one word, especially when we lay a strong stress upon one particular syllable. Compare, for example,

blackbird with *black bird*, *madhouse* with *mad house*.

Effects of stress on its form.

As a result of this word-stress (70), a compound often changes its pronunciation, and, generally, its spelling, still further; so that, without studying its history, we do not think of what it comes from. So with *holiday* < *holy day*, *furlong* < *furrow long*, *fortnight* < *fourteen night*, and so on. So, also, with *forehead* and *breakfast*, in which the spelling is retained but the pronunciation altered. Other examples are

bridal < O. E. *bryd-ealo*, "bride-ale," "bride's feast";
nostril < O. E. *nosu-thyrel*, "nose-thyrl," "nose-hole."

Effects of composition on its meaning.

Generally, also, the meaning of the compound is different from the meaning of the elements taken separately. A *black bird*, for instance, is any

bird that is black, whereas a *blackbird* is a particular kind of *black bird*. So, too, a *mad house* means a household that is mad, whereas a *madhouse* is a house for mad people—a lunatic asylum.

The closeness of the combination of the parts of a compound differs in degree. Some compounds are only occasionally used or are confined to one author. Examples are

The closeness of the connection of the parts varies:

Temporary and Permanent Compounds.

prize-ox, gift-horse, air-balloon, star-tuned, sphere-music.

Others, again, go into general use, as, for instance, bank-deposit, book-case, book-cover, knee-deep, folk-lore.

Such combinations are called *temporary compounds*: their parts are connected with a hyphen and the first member is stressed more than the rest. They form a connecting link between the phrase and the true compound.

On the other hand, true compounds; that is, those combinations which are permanently welded together, are called *permanent compounds*: they have no hyphen, and have but one stress. So gradual, indeed, is the transition from the phrase to the temporary compound, from the temporary compound to the permanent compound, and from the permanent compound to the derivative, that it is sometimes difficult to decide in which of the classes to place an expression.

90. A compound may itself enter into other compounds: thus, by adding *wine* to the compound *gooseberry*, we have *gooseberrywine*. Such compounds are known as *decomposites*. Other examples are

Derivatives and compounds from compounds.

handicraftsman, topgallantsails, pocket-handkerchief.

And, further, a compound may also yield derivatives; thus, from *barefoot* we have *barefooted*. Such combinations are known as *compound derivatives*, and are very frequently found, especially in poetry. Other examples are

knight-errantry, humblemindedness, deepthroated, golden-shafted, subtle-cadenced, royal-towered, pure-eyed.

ROOT-WORDS AND FORMATIVE ELEMENTS.

The Root represents the fundamental idea. Formative elements and Stems.

91. To all the words in the following list :

lovely, lovable, unloving, lovelier, loveless, loves, loved ;

one syllable *lov* is common : it represents the fundamental idea, which is formed, or modified, by the additions—the prefix and the suffixes, which are known as *formative elements*. Such a syllable is called a *root*; and the simplest word which contains it, as *love* in this case, is called a *root-word*, or *radical*. From words like *lov*, *stems* are fancifully represented as growing by the addition of prefixes and suffixes, just as the stems of plants grow from their roots. Other examples are,

tru in *truth*, *trust*, *untrue*, *truthful*, *truly*, *untruly*, *distrust* ;
grap in *grab*, *grapple*, *grasp*, *grapnel* ;

for often in derivatives, as in the case of *grap*, the form of the root is altered from various phonetic causes.

Such roots not necessarily roots in human speech.

Such forms are often traceable to still simpler forms on comparison with similar forms in the family of languages to which they belong. They are, therefore, roots only with reference to the language in which they are found; they are not necessarily roots in human speech. So, too, a great many words which are defined as simple, so far as the English language is concerned, are found to be really derivative or compound, when we come to know more about them. To recognize the plain and evident derivation and composition of English words is the proper preparation for studying the history of the obscurer ones.

The sources of our formative elements.

92. Some prefixes and suffixes are of Old English origin, and others are of Latin, Greek, and French; most being of Latin origin. By far the larger number, however, have gone out of active use as formative elements; although, of course, they are still found in words of old formation. Thus, for example, we no longer use to produce new words, the prefixes and suffixes in

along, *forbear*, *withstand*, *adapt*, *obviate*, *subterfuge*, *bullock*,
broken, *wedlock*, *coward*, *action*, *darkling*, *headlong*.

Such formative elements are called *dead*, while those we still use are called *living*. Examples of words containing the latter are

Some dead ;
others, living.

begirdle, misdeed, dislike, extra-regular, praeternatural, superhuman ; earthen, speaker, loving, goodness, murderous, personage, minstrelsy, enjoyment.

93. Old English resembled Modern German in its power to form self-explaining compounds out of native elements. Many of these have, however, been replaced by words of Romanic origin : thus, for example,

Self-explaining compounds.

ðæd bót (deed-bettering), penance ; *bóc-hús* (book-house), library ; *treów-wyrhte* (tree-wright), carpenter ; *flæsch mongere* (flesh-monger), butcher.

Modern English still retains this power, as, for example, in

rock-oil, steam-boat, street-car ;

but not nearly to the same extent as Old English ; for we generally resort to Latin or Greek for the material of our new words : thus,

telephone, telegram, microbe, manufactory, juxtaposition.

INFLECTION.

94. So far we have been considering how some words are derived from others or compounded to form others. We have now to notice certain other alterations in form which some words undergo, according to differences in their meaning, or differences in the connection in which they are used. Such altered forms, although, in a way, derived from other forms, are, for reasons to be seen later, never called derivatives.

Inflection, different from derivation.

NUMBER.

95. In the sentences :

The *boy* learns, The *man* thinks so, The *horse* kneels, each of the nouns, *boy*, *man*, and *horse* may alter its form to mean something a little different from what it means here. If, in each case, we want to speak of more than one, we alter the sound (and hence the spelling) and say *boys*, *men*, *horses*.

Number in nouns, a change in meaning and usually in form.

Here, then, is a set of changes in nouns made to show a difference in the *number* of objects meant. Hence we call it a change for *number*, and we say that *boy*, *man*, and *horse* are of the *singular* number (*singular* means "single") and that *boys*, *men*, and *horses* are *plural* (*plural* means "more than one"). What is true of these nouns is true of nearly all the rest: that is to say, our nouns in general have two number-forms, one singular and one plural.

96. But if in the sentences above we use the plural forms as subjects instead of the singular, we cannot always use the same forms of the verb as predicates: thus, compare

The boy <i>learns</i>	WITH	The boys <i>learn</i> ;
The man <i>thinks</i> so	"	The men <i>think</i> so ;
The horse <i>kneels</i>	"	The horses <i>kneel</i> .

Number in verbs, a change in form only.

This alteration in the form of the verb, when it is made (and it is by no means always made), does not show a difference of meaning in the same sense as the change in the noun; for we cannot really say that the act of learning or thinking or kneeling is in itself different according as one person or thing, or more than one, take part in it. The change is, rather, a mere consequence of the change of meaning of the subjects. We say, therefore, that the verb, as well as the noun, has sometimes two forms, one for use with a subject that is singular, and the other for use with a subject that is plural. These forms we call the singular and plural number-forms of the verb itself.

Government and Agreement.

97. And, as the distinction of the use of these forms depends, not on anything in the meaning of the verb itself, but only on the character of the subject, we speak of the subject as directing or *governing* in the matter; the subject being given, the verb is *compelled* to *agree* with it in respect to number. The use of these terms is, however, figurative, and the term government, which is in general use among grammarians, does not give a correct idea of what takes place; for the form of the expression is as much determined by the "governed" word as it is by the word that "governs."

Merely figurative terms.

PERSON.

98. If, again, we use as subjects the pronouns *I*, *he* (or *she* or *it*), the verb used with each is sometimes different: thus, *I learn*, *he learns*. Here, there is nothing changed in the action of learning signified by the verb; the real change is only in the character of its subject. *I* is always used by a person speaking, to signify himself; *he* (or *she* or *it*), to signify any person or thing spoken of. And if the person speaking uses the pronoun *you*, which signifies the person to whom he is speaking, the form of the verb remains unchanged: thus, *you read*; but if—as we do occasionally in certain styles of language—we use *thou* for the same purpose, the form of the verb is also altered: thus, *thou learnest*. This difference in the pronouns is called a difference of *person*; and in order to distinguish them from one another, we call *I* the pronoun of the *first* person, *thou* (or *you*) the pronoun of the *second* person, and *he*, (or *she* or *it*) the pronoun of the *third* person.

Person in pronouns, a difference of meaning; in verbs, of form only.

Hence, we say, as before, that the verb has sometimes three person-forms, for use with subjects of the first, second, and third persons respectively: these forms we call the first, second, and third persons of the verb itself. And here, again, it is the subject that governs, or determines what the form of the verb must be, in respect to person as well as to number; the subject being given, the verb, when so variable, is made to agree with its subject in both person and number.

The subject governs; the verb agrees.

A verb, we may notice here, is of the first or of the second person, only when its subject is a pronoun of the first or of the second person. Every subject-noun has the verb in the third person. Further on, however, we shall see that this variation for person and number in the verb and its phrase-forms, is the exception rather than the rule.

TENSE.

99. But the verb, as well as the noun, has alterations of form to mark real differences of meaning. We cannot use the forms *learns*, *thinks*,

Tense, a real difference of meaning.

kneels (in the sentences given as samples above) if we wish to say that the action of learning, thinking, or kneeling, took place at some time in the past. In that case, we say

The boy *learned*, The man *thought* so,
The horse *kneeled*, OR *knelt*.

Thus, we show by an alteration of form of the verb a distinction of the *time* of the action, as past or present. This is called a distinction of *tense* (*tense* means "time"); and *learns*, *thinks*, *kneels* are said to be of the *present* tense, while *learned*, *thought*, *kneeled*, or *knelt*, are said to be of the *past* tense.

The use of the different tenses of a verb depends, therefore, on the difference of the meaning which we wish to express.

MOOD.

Mood also shows a real difference of meaning.

100. One other difference of meaning is indicated in the three persons of the past tense of one verb by an alteration of the form of the verb. We say

I *was* there, BUT If I *were* there now, I should be glad;
He *was* angry, BUT Though he *were* angry, he would not go.

Definition of Mood.

This is called a distinction of *mood* (*mood*, or *mode*, means "manner"); that is, the manner of viewing the action expressed by the verb, whether as *actual*, or as *doubtful*, *questionable*, *dependent* on a condition.

(1). The Subjunctive.

Were in these sentences is said to be of the *subjunctive* mood (*subjunctive* means "subjoined," in the sense of "dependent"); the speaker here treats my being there and his being angry, as mere *conceptions*, and, therefore, as possibilities, not as facts. As distinguished from *were*, the form *was*, in the above sentences is said to be of the *indicative* mood (*indicative* means simply "pointing out" or stating); the speaker here treats as *facts* my being there and his being angry, although, of course, they may not really be facts.

(2). The Indicative.

(3). The Imperative.

The form of the verb used in imperative sentences is called the *imperative* mood (51). This form, however, is not a special one in Modern English;

the mood has but a single form which is used indifferently as singular and as plural; and its subject is generally omitted.

INFLECTION AND CONJUGATION.

101. This alteration in the form of any word, either to show changes of its own meaning or to adapt it to be used along with the different forms of other words, is called its *inflection* (the name means "bending into a different shape," adaptation); and the word thus varied in form is said to be *inflected*.

Definitions of
Inflection and
Conjugation.

We have noticed now all the varieties of meaning and use for which the verb in our language is thus altered in form or inflected. The inflection of a verb is usually called its *conjugation* (the name means only a "joining together" of the various verb-forms); and the verb is said to be *conjugated*.

CASE.

102. But number is not the only inflection of nouns. If John has or possesses a book, we call it *John's book*, adding an 's to the name to mark the person as being the possessor of the thing. This form of a noun, usually made by adding an 's, we are accustomed to call its *possessive case*; because, in Modern English, it most often shows possession.

The Posses-
sive case.

The possessive case of a noun has very nearly the same meaning as the noun has with the preposition *of* before it; thus, *men's souls*, and *the souls of men*; *children's pleasures*, and *the pleasures of children*; that is to say, the same relation of one noun to another as is expressed by connecting it with that other by the preposition *of* (in some of its senses) may also often be expressed by putting the noun itself in the possessive case. And sundry other relations which we now express only by means of other prepositions, were formerly expressed in our language, and are still expressed in other languages, by this and other cases, or changed forms of the noun. As will be seen later, under the pronoun and the adverb, there are traces of other Old English case-forms in Modern English.

The relation
shown by the
possessive.

The possessive form of some pronouns.

Some pronouns also have what was originally a possessive case, although it is not indicated in writing as in nouns by adding 's: thus, *he, his; who, whose*; and, as we shall see later, there has been a still greater irregularity in the case-forms of the other pronouns.

The relation shown by the Objective case governed by the verb.

103. But nouns and pronouns are capable of standing in another relation to verbs than that of subject (18). If we say

The man binds *books*, but John reads *them*,

books and *them* belong to the predicates, because they represent a part of what is asserted about the persons the subjects stand for. The assertion of the general action of binding or reading is, in each case, limited (that is, is made more definite) by pointing out on what particular class of things it is exercised.

Definitions of Object, and Objective and Nominative cases.

A word added to a transitive verb in this way is called the *object* of the verb (*object* means "something put in the way"), because it signifies the person or thing that directly endures, or is the *object* of, the action expressed by the verb. Now in

They see him and he sees them,
Thou seest him and he sees thee;

he and *him*, *they* and *them*, *thou* and *thee* are the corresponding subject and object forms of the same pronouns. This also we call a variation of case; and we call the form of the pronoun that is used as object the *objective* case. And then the form used as subject, whether it be a noun or a pronoun, we call, to distinguish it from the other cases, the *subjective* case — or, more usually but less correctly, the *nominative*, or naming case (*nominative* means simply "naming").

Objective governed by a preposition.

When a pronoun is connected with some other word by a preposition, we always use the objective case of it, just as when it is the object of the verb. And because the preposition seems to exert a kind of influence upon the word which it thus attaches to something else, we call that word the *object* of the preposition.

The Common case.

104. There is no noun in our language which really has for an objective case, a form different from

the nominative, and used when the noun is in the object relation. In Modern English, one form (sometimes called the *common* case) is used for both the subject and the object relation. Thus, we say

The *father* loves the *son*, and the *son* loves the *father*;
The *father* went with the *son*, and the *son* went with the *father*;

without any change of the words *father* and *son*; the positions of the words show their relation. Still, partly by analogy with the pronouns, and partly because many other languages related to English, and even earlier English, generally, do distinguish the object from the subject in nouns as well as in pronouns, and partly again because a difference of name enables us to indicate a difference of relation, we usually speak of nouns as having a nominative and an objective case.

Why we speak of the nominative and objective cases of nouns.

And we speak of both verbs and prepositions as *governing* in the objective the word that is their object, because it is *compelled* to be put in that case after them, and because its relation to them, rather than any difference of meaning which we feel in the word itself, is the reason of its being made objective.

The government of verbs and prepositions.

DECLENSION.

105. These are all the kinds of changes that make up the inflection of the noun and the pronoun. Being different from those of the verb, they go by a different name; they are called the *declension* of the noun or pronoun, which is said to be *declined*.

Definition of Declension.

The term *case* is derived from *casus*, the translation made at Rome of *ptosis*, the Greek grammatical term. It meant "a falling", a variation from the so-called primary form in a noun. This form in the noun, now known as the nominative, was represented by a perpendicular line and called the "upright" case, while the others were called the "slanting," or "oblique," cases. As the so-called nominative in the noun or pronoun does not "fall" from any form, it is, therefore, not really a case in Modern English; it is called so with reference to its relation in the sentence, not to its form. A scheme of these cases was known as Declension. Gradually, however, the original meaning of case and declension was forgotten and they came to be used as mere grammatical terms.

Origin of the terms case and declension.

STEM, OR BASE OF INFLECTION.

Definition of Stem.

Definition of Derivation.

Composition, derivation, and inflection shade into one another.

Definition of Inflection.

106. In describing the inflection of any word, we take for a starting-point that form which is usually the simplest and briefest, and we treat the others as made from that by various alterations. This form is called the *stem* (91), or *base of inflection*. In nouns and pronouns it is the same as the nominative case singular; and in verbs, as the infinitive (but, in verbs, the stem is commonly known as the *root*). It might be said, truly enough, that these altered forms are *derived* from the stem; but the name derivation is more usually and properly given to the change by which one stem, or base of inflection, is made from another. Inflection and derivation are, however, very much alike, not only in form but sometimes even in meaning; so that, as we have seen to be the case with derivation and composition (89), no hard and fast line of division can be drawn. Thus, for example, the addition of the plural inflection in the case of such a word as *books* in the sentence: "He is fond of books," produces what might be regarded as a new word meaning "literature," or "reading"; and the plural form *men* has a possessive *men's*, and the past *loved* has *lovedst* for the second person singular, both *men* and *loved* being here used as the base of inflection. By inflection, however, we mean, strictly speaking, an addition made to, or a change made in, a class of words, to express a grammatical relation, or a meaning so general as not to form a new word.

THE UNINFLECTED PARTS OF SPEECH.

107. Of the remaining parts of speech, the adjective and the adverb, and the preposition and the conjunction have no variation of the kind here called inflection; they are all *uninflected* parts of speech.

The Comparative and the Superlative, derived forms.

As we have seen (82), most adjectives and a very few adverbs have derived forms in *-er* and *-est*. In the case of the adjective, these suffixes are sometimes treated as inflections. The history of the language, however, shows us that, in Old English, as in Latin and Greek, the comparative and the super-

lative were derived from the positive by the addition of suffixes, and, to the derivatives thus formed, inflections were added to show agreement with the noun. These inflections disappeared in the Middle English period. The comparative and superlative are, therefore, themselves stems, not inflected forms.

METHODS OF INFLECTION.

108. We have thus noticed in a general way all the kinds of real inflection which we find in English; that is, inflection consisting of a change in the form of a word. Further on we shall take up each part of speech by itself, and explain its inflectional changes more fully. But, before leaving the general subject, we will observe the methods of the change thus made in the words inflected:

(1). The inflectional change is most frequently made by adding something on at the end of a word. Thus, from *horse* come *horse's* and *horses* by an added *s*-sound; so from *book* come *book's* and *books*; from *love* come *lovest*, *loves*, *loveth*, *loved*, by similar additions. Much the largest part of the inflection of English words is of this kind; and, as we shall see later, the other kinds of real inflection are in origin only the consequences and alterations of this kind.

Methods:

(1). By adding at the end.

(2). Some words are inflected without any addition made to them but by changes made in them—alterations of the sounds of which they are composed: thus, the plural for *man* is *men*, and the past tenses for *lead* and *send* are *led*, and *sent*.

(2). Change in the sound.

(3). Sometimes, again, inflection consists of an alteration of the original sound with something added also: thus, *kneel* has for past tense both *kneeled* and *knelt*, and *teach* has *taught*; *does* and *says* are formed from *do* and *say*; *children* from *child*; and *brothers* and *brethren* from *brother*.

(3). Change in sound, and addition.

EQUIVALENTS OF INFLECTIONS.

109. So far we have been dealing with real inflection. We have now to see what other provision exists for expressing the same differences of the meaning or the relation of words.

Old
Equivalents :

Even in the earlier stages of the language we find substitutes for the regular method of inflection, many of which still survive :

(1). Different
words.

(1). Some words use, instead of real inflections, what seem to be, or really are, wholly different words : thus, *she* has for objective *her*, and, for plural, *they*; and, in like manner, *I* has *me* and *we*; the verb *begin* has *began* for its past (70); *am* has *was*; and *go*, *went*; and the present indicative *am* has *be* for subjunctive.

(2). Words
unchanged.

(2). When, again, some words are inflected, others of the same class remain unchanged : thus, the noun *sheep* is the same in the plural as in the singular; while *he* and *she* have special forms, *him* and *her*, it is the same in the nominative and the objective; the verbs *set* and *put*, have the same forms in the past tense as in the present; and so on.

Extension of
the meaning
of terms of
inflection.

Such inconsistencies and irregularities are found more or less in all languages, and very often we are unable to account for them. In describing words and their relations we treat these irregular forms as we do real inflections; thus, for instance, *me* is called the objective case of *I*, because it corresponds in use to the objective *him* formed by inflection from *he*; and *put* is called the past tense of *put*, because it corresponds in use to the past *loved*, formed by inflection from *love*. Such use of the terms is simply for convenience' sake.

Modern
Phrase-
Forms,
the result of
the disap-
pearance of
the O.E. in-
flections.

110. Old English, while it had fewer inflections than either Latin or Greek, for instance, had far more than Modern English. The very general disappearance of the O. E. inflections was followed by the formation of phrases in which the relational part represented the older inflection.

Phrases used
for cases.

Instead of the O. E. *stāne*, for example, we now say "*to a stone*," where the inflection *-e* is represented by the relational word—the preposition *to*; and the modern possessive is used almost wholly to express possession; whereas, in Old English, the case stood for many other relations : thus, for example,

hund mittena hwætes, "a hundred measures of wheat";
ānes géares lamb, "a lamb of one year";
ynces lang, "an inch long."

We use, besides, many verb-phrases which in some cases represent O. E. inflected forms and, in others, are due to the modern necessity for greater variety and definiteness of expression. Old English had, indeed, a few verb-phrases, but it used freely an inflected subjunctive and it had only two tenses. In Modern English, on the other hand, only one verb (100), in all the language, uses for the past subjunctive a tense-form different from the indicative; and, even in the present subjunctive, except in the case of the same verb (109 [1]), a difference is found only in the second and third persons singular (thus: Ind. *thou lovest, he loves*; Subj. (if) *thou love, he love*); and this only sometimes in literary English and almost never in spoken English. For the O. E. Subjunctive we use either the forms of the Indicative, or verb-phrases such as

Verb-phrases.

may go, might go, should go, would go, may have gone; and so on. And, for the O. E. present and past tenses, which were generally used to express all differences of time, we have such verb-phrases as

am going, am gone, have gone, had gone, shall have gone, will have gone, do go, did go, should go, would go;

and so on. Each phrase in both the lists given above consists of a form of the notional word *go*, and one or more relational words combined with it (35); and the parts of each combination are felt to be so closely associated, and the phrases are so often used, that we have come to look upon them and to treat them as verb-phrases of the same value as inflected forms.

Composition of verb-phrases.

111. In Modern English, therefore, differences of the meanings and the relations of words are shown sometimes by inflected forms but oftener by phrases. It must not be supposed, however, that there is anything unusual in the disappearance of most of the older inflected forms and the development of these modern phrase-forms; for both are the natural results of the growth of an Arian language. English has simply followed the natural law in changing from a synthetic to an analytic condition (6).

Phrases for inflected forms, a natural growth.

VI. SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Definition of
Construction.

112. We will now consider connectedly and in detail the regular constructions of the parts of speech in the simple assertive sentence: (*construction* means "building together"; for the sentence is thought of as something "built up" by joining its components in a proper manner). And what we shall say will apply generally to the various combinations in clauses and in interrogative and imperative sentences, if we bear in mind the different relations of the subject and the verb in the three forms of the sentence (48). The special syntax of phrases and clauses will be taken up under the parts of speech to which they belong.

English
syntax, how
shown.

113. The relations of words in the sentence have remained the same since the earliest period of our language; but, as we have seen (6), when English changed from the synthetic to the analytic condition, the means of expressing these relations also underwent many changes. Few of the Old English relational inflections survive; so that the syntax of the modern English sentence is ascertained more by the logical connection (that is "the connection according to the meaning") and the position of its components than by their forms. In Latin and Greek, on the contrary, the syntax is shown by the form of the words, for the inflections are very numerous.

Contrasted
with Latin
and Greek.

Simple
sentences
with com-
pound
members.

114. Strictly speaking, a simple sentence consists of only one subject and one predicate, but a sentence is also valued as simple even when any of its less essential members—any adjunct or modification of the subject or of the predicate-verb—is compound; or, in general, if the subject itself is compound; or even if the predicate-verb is compound, provided the sentence itself is brief and not complicated: for, in such sentences, we do not feel that there are more thoughts than one. Examples are

He and I went; They kept coming and going;
They were lovely and pleasant in their lives;
The color went and came with great rapidity.

These sentences may each be valued as simple with compound members, although we may say with the same meaning "He went and I went" and so on. But when, as in

How
valued.

Friends and foes rushed together;
Two and two make four;

the connection is very close (28), the compounded parts cannot be so separated.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE-VERB.

115. In those words—namely, some of the pronouns—which have a form for the nominative different from that for the objective, the nominative is alone used as subject; and, in nouns, of course, the common case-form is used in this construction (104).

First rules of
syntax:

(1). The subject, in the nominative.

Again, so far as the verb has different forms for number and person, the form used is of the same number and person as the subject—being, therefore, of the third person if the subject is a noun (98).

(2). The subject governs the verb; the verb agrees.

This relation of subject and verb is expressed by saying that the verb agrees with its subject in number and person; or that the subject governs the verb in number and person (98). Some special cases need to be noticed.

SUBJECT.

116. Sometimes the notion the subject expresses is repeated:

The notion
expressed by
the SUBJECT
repeated:

For
emphasis.

(1). Usually to show its importance: thus,

Peace, O Virtue, *peace* is all thy own;
Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
These three alone lead life to sovereign power.

(2). Occasionally for clearness; to recall the subject to the memory when at some distance from the verb; thus,

For
clearness.

The feeling that this was really Samuel Weller who was before me, and Sergeant Buzfuz, and Mr. Pickwick, and each personage of the story in succession—this *feeling* came over me, etc.

PREDICATE-VERB.

117. First, as to number: the verb is construed according to the meaning, not the form of its subject.

The NUMBER
of the verb:

The following are the chief applications of this principle:

I. With one
subject:
(1). Plural
construc-
tions.

I. When there is only one subject:

(1). The verb is plural when used with a singular noun-subject, signifying a *collection* (and hence called a *collective* noun), when we have in mind the separate individuals composing the collection; thus,

The jury *are* all old men; The crowd *throng* the street;
A half of them *are* gone.

(2). Singular
construc-
tions.

(2). But the verb is singular with a collective noun-subject when we have in mind the individuals as forming one body: thus,

The jury *is* in its room; The crowd *throngs* the street.

(3). The verb is singular when, although the subject is plural in form, the meaning is singular: thus,

Two-thirds of this *is* mine by right;
With Thee a thousand years *is* as one day;
Johnson's "Lives" *was* published before his death.

II. With
more subjects
than one:
(1). Plural
construc-
tions.

II. When there are more subjects than one:

(1). The verb is plural:

(a). When the subjects, even if each is singular, are taken as one plural subject, thus,

Horror and doubt *distract* his troubled mind;
His father and his brother *were* long dead.

So, too, when the conjunction is omitted: thus,
Art, empire, earth itself, to change *are* doomed.

(b). When there is really a plural subject though the singular subject is expressed but once; thus,

My quarrel and the English Queen's *are* one;
The second and the third epistle of John *contain* each a
single chapter.

(c). When, to a singular subject, a noun or pronoun is added by means of the preposition *with*, and the meaning of the whole subject thus formed is plural, the verb is sometimes made plural: thus,

The King with the lords and commons *constitute* the
government.

But, although this is sometimes defended as a *sense*-construction, the more approved usage prefers *and* to *with*.

(2). The verb is singular,

(2). Singular
construc-
tions.

(a). When, although there are several singular subjects, they represent but one notion: thus,

Brandy and water *is* his favorite beverage;
Wherein *doth* sit the fear and dread of kings;
The saint, the father, and the husband *prays*.

(b). When the logical subject is distributed: thus,
Every limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace.

So, too, when the subjects are taken alternately, the verb is singular if the subjects are singular; otherwise it is plural; and, to avoid awkwardness, the plural subject, if there is one, is put next the verb: thus,

Neither the one nor the other *appears* to have understood;
Never *has* my heart or ear hung on so sweet a strain;
The King or his soldiers *have* done the deed.

And the construction is the same when each of the singular subjects is emphatic, and so, one after the other attracts attention to itself; or, when each may be regarded as an explanation of some general idea involved in all of them: thus,

To spread suspicion, to invent calumnies, *requires* no courage;
No part of their substance and no one of their properties
is the same;

A fever, a mutilation, a cruel disappointment, a loss of wealth, a loss of friends, *seems* at the moment unpaid loss;
The author, the wit, the partisan, the fine gentleman *does*
not take the place of the man;

Not enjoyment and not sorrow *is* our destined end or way.

(c). When the attention is attracted especially to the singular subject, which is next the verb: thus,

Her knights, her dames, her court *is* there;
Ah! then and there *was* hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress, etc.;
Care only *wakes* and moping pensiveness.

(d). When there is a distinct suggestion of an omitted predicate, and the attention is attracted to the leading subject, which is singular: thus,

His brother, as well as his father and mother, *looks* on with pity;
The oldest, as well as the newest, wine *begins* to stir itself;
Asia, as well as Europe, *was* dazzled by his power;
Somewhat, and in some cases a great deal, *is* laid upon us;
The king, but not his councillors, *was* present;
Our own heart and not other men's opinions, *forms* our
true honor.

The PERSON
of the verb
with more
subjects than
one.

118. Secondly, as to person, when there are more subjects than one:

(1). When the verb is to be made plural, it undergoes no change, as it has then no personal endings.

(2). But when two or more subjects of different persons are connected by alternative or adversative conjunctions, the verb usually agrees with the one that most attracts the attention; that is, with the first in preference to the others, and with the second in preference to the third. Owing, however, to the absence of plural inflections for person, the form of the verb varies in the singular only: thus,

Either he or I *am* right; Thou but not he *art* right.

Sometimes, however, the verb agrees with the subject next it although this subject does not attract especial attention: thus,

Neither you nor he *is* right;
Not I, but thou, his blood *dost* shed.

But, as both of these constructions are felt to be awkward, the best modern usage prefers to repeat the verb with the latter subject when this can be done without greater awkwardness: thus,

Either he is right or I am;
Neither are you right nor is he.

COMPLETION OF THE BARE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

119. We have next to consider how the simple and necessary framework of the sentence—the bare noun or pronoun and the bare verb—is extended and filled out, when we express more, or express ourselves with greater definiteness, in a simple sentence.

PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

Verbs of
Incomplete
Predication.

One class of verbs is made up of such as call for something more to be added relating to the subject and further describing what it stands for. They are already known to us as verbs of incomplete predication, and what is added is known as the predicate adjective or noun (18).

The number of verbs used in this way is not a very large one.

(1). The verb *be* is by far the commonest of the whole class: thus,

I am *ill*; You are a *scholar*; You were greatly *mistaken*.

This verb, in its various forms and verb-phrases, has come to be used as a mere connective of assertion between a subject and some word or words describing that which the subject stands for; and, when thus used, it has no meaning of its own except that of signifying the assertion. It is notional only when it expresses existence (35).

Be, the commonest.

The verb *be* is, consequently, sometimes described as the *copula* (that is, "coupler") because it couples two words so as to make the relation of subject and predicate. Indeed, every verb admits of being analysed logically into some form of this copula *be*, which expresses the act of assertion, and a predicate noun or adjective (especially the participle), expressing the condition or quality or action predicated. Thus, "I stand" is nearly "I am erect" or, still more nearly "I am standing," and "We gave" and "They beg" are equivalent to "We were givers," or "We were giving," "They are beggars," or "They are begging."

The Copula.

(2). The following are examples of the use of the other chief verbs of incomplete predication,

Other verbs of incomplete predication.

I became *ill*; His face grew *black*; It turned *cold*;

John remained *silent*; He continues *grateful*;

She seems a *goddess*; It looks *terrible*; We feel *outraged*;

It smells *sweet*; The door stands *open*; He lay *still*;

My blood runs *cold*; They sat *mute*; He went *mad*;

He appeared *sorry*; He ran *foul* of me.

120. In such constructions as

He was made *angry* by them;

They were called *cannibals* by him;

angry and *cannibals* are the predicate adjective and noun.

Pred. adj. and noun in the Active and Passive Constructions.

The meaning of these sentences may also be expressed thus:

They made him *angry*; He called them *cannibals*.

As we shall see later, *made* and *called* in the latter sentences are said to be of the *active* conjugation (101) (*active* means "acting"), because the persons the

Active and Passive Conjugations.

subjects stand for are represented as *acting*. *Was made* and *were called*, of the former sentences, are, on the other hand, known as verb-phrases of the *passive* conjugation (*passive* means "suffering" or "enduring"), because the persons the subjects of the sentences stand for are *acted upon*. In both cases, of course, the same persons are acted upon; but, in the active, they are represented by the grammatical objects; and, in the passive, by the grammatical subjects.

Predicate
adjective
shades off
into an
adverb.

121. The predicate use of the adjective shades off into an adverbial construction, and the two are not always to be readily or clearly distinguished from each other. Their distinction depends on the degree to which the added word is intended to modify the subject on the one hand, or the verb itself on the other. Thus, we may say

We feel *warm*; It is buried *deep*;

when we mean "feel ourselves to be warm," "buried so as to be deep"; or we may say

We feel *warmly*; It is buried *deeply*;

when we mean that the feeling is a warm one, that the burying was a deep one. And in

He looks *well*,

we understand *well* to be predicate adjective when the sense is "looks in good health, he appears as if he were well"; and adverb, if the sense is "he is good-looking." But in

He sits *next*,

next may be understood in either way without any important difference.

Again, we say of a fruit,

It looks *ripe*; It feels *ripe*; It smells *ripe*; It tastes *ripe*;

because the meaning is that in these various ways we judge it actually to be ripe; and well-established usage allows us to say

The girl looks *pretty*; The rose smells *sweet*;

The wine tastes *sour*;

although, in each case, the adverb, *prettily* and so on, would, in strict theory, be the correct form.

122. With the verbs of state and motion, especially, the modifying force of the predicate adjective is very often really distributed between the subject and the verb. Thus, in "He stands *firm*," we mean not only that he is firm in his standing, but also that the standing itself is firm. So, also, in

Adverbial
Predicate
Adjective.

The sun shines *bright*; the messenger comes *running*;
The tone rings *clear* and *full*.

An adjective thus used may be distinguished as an *adverbial predicate* adjective.

123. A word in the predicate (except a predicate possessive [143]) which has different forms for subject and object relations, ought, since it describes what the subject stands for, to be in the same case with it; and this rule is observed in English in those pronouns which distinguish nominative and objective: thus, we say,

Agreement of
predicate
pronoun.

It is *I* (*we*, *thou*, *she*, *he*, or *they*).

Owing, however, to the modern tendency to disregard inflectional differences, careless and inaccurate speakers often use such expressions as "It is *them*"; "It was *us*"; "It was *her*"; and in the case of "It is *me*," the practice has become so common that it is even held to be good English by respectable authorities.

OBJECT OF THE VERB.

124. A very much larger class of verbs than those especially known as verbs of incomplete predication, are incomplete in another way—namely, as they call for the addition of a word to express something on which the action they signify is exerted. Such verbs are called transitive (18); and, when we use an inflected pronoun as their object, it is put in the objective case. Indeed, this case is so named as being especially that belonging to the object of the verb. Hence, we may say that a transitive verb governs the objective case (103).

Transitive
verbs and
their object.

Transitive verbs may, almost without exception, be used without any object. Examples are

Transitive
verbs used
intransitively.

I love; Seek, fire, kill; He stopped and then turned;
They fought year after year; The cakes ate short and crisp;
Drink from the goblet while it fills.

Intransitive
Verbs.

Used
transitively.

125. On the other hand, there are the intransitive verbs, which do not take an object after them (18). Some, however, can be used transitively. The chief cases of this use are:

(1). Reflexive
object.

(1). When they express action, they are followed occasionally in prose by a reflexive pronoun (*reflexive* means "turning back," the action being made to "turn back" upon the actor, instead of "passing over to" a different object): thus,

He boasted *himself*; You fretted *yourself*; I delight *myself*;
He possessed *himself* of the book; He over-slept *himself*;

and often in poetry, by a simple personal pronoun used in a reflexive sense: thus,

Here will we rest *us*; They sat *them* down beside the stream;
Go, flee *thee* away into the land of Judah.

(2). Cognate
object.

(2). When they take an object expressing in noun-form the action, or a variety of the action, expressed by the verb itself. Examples are

He lived a long *life*; They ran their *race*;
You danced a *jig*; Death grinned horrible, a ghastly *smile*;
Grace me no *grace*, nor uncle me no *uncle*.
He struck a deadly *blow*; It blew a *gale*;
They shouted *applause*; He ran a *great risk*.

And this object is metaphorical in

He looked *daggers* at me; The realm itself yawned *dungeons*.

Such objects are called *cognate*; that is, of the same kin as ("allied in meaning to") the verb itself.

(3). Causative
verbs.

(3). When the verb denotes a *causing* to act: thus,

He trotted his *horse*; He ran the *engine*;
He marched his *men*.

Verbs used in this way are called *causative*. As will be seen later, some verbs have a special form to express this meaning (as *lie* and *fall*, which have *lay* and *fell*).

With
metaphorical
cognate
object.

And we have a combination of the causative verb and the metaphorical cognate object in such sentences as

He rained *shells* and red-hot *bullets* on the city.

(4). When the verb denotes producing a certain effect by the act it expresses (131): thus,

(4). Object of effect produced.

They yawned their *jaws out of joint*; He walked *himself weary*.

(5). When what is construed as the object of the verb may also be brought into relation with it by means of a preposition. Examples are

(5). Where a preposition may be supplied.

He sat his *horse* well; There is not a ship that sails the *ocean*

While thou foughtest the Christian *cause*;

where we may say also "sat on," "sails over," and "foughtest for."

126. The kinds of object we have thus far considered are known as *direct* objects, because their relation to the "governing" word is so *direct* and close as not to require a helping word to define it.

Definition of direct object.

Some verbs, however, take along with such a direct object, another of a different character, in a relation which we more usually express by *to* or *for*; thus,

Indirect objects.

He gave *me* the book; They made the *man* a coat.

In the first sentence, *me* points out to whom the act of giving the book was done; in the second, *man* shows for whom the act of making the coat was performed. This appears clearly enough when we change the place of the words in question, putting them after the direct object. We are then obliged by custom to use prepositions: thus,

He gave the book *to* me; They made a coat *for* the man.

127. Such a second object, then, is called an *indirect* object, because it represents what is *less directly* affected by the action of the verb, and because the same relation may be, and often is, expressed by prepositions—namely, by *to* or, more rarely, by *for*. One common verb *ask* takes a second, or indirect object, in a relation usually expressed by *of*: thus "I asked him his name"; but "I asked a favor *of* him"; and a like construction is now and then met with irregularly, in the case of other verbs. But, although we may use *to* and *for* in expressing the relation of the indirect object, we must not make the mistake of supposing that a *to* or *for* is left out, and to be

Definition of indirect object.

Now without
special form.

“understood” as expressed along with the object itself. The case is not, indeed, like the possessive (102), now distinguished by an ending of its own; but it was so formerly. And, as in Latin and Greek, the Old inflected form of the indirect objective is called the *dative*; and that of the direct objective, the *accusative*.

Direct and
indirect
objectives.

The indirect object, like the direct, is put in the objective case. But the objective in this use is to be called the *indirect* objective. It is regularly put, in the sentence, between the verb and the direct object, the case of which is in turn called the *direct* objective. Sometimes, however, as in “Give *it* me,” the indirect follows the direct objective.

Passive Con-
struction of
direct and
indirect
objects.

128. When a verb, which in the active conjugation takes both a direct and an indirect object, becomes passive, its direct object regularly becomes its subject, and its indirect object remains after the verb, sometimes with, and sometimes without, a preposition to show its relation: thus,

A book was given *me* (or *to me*);

His wages were paid the *man* (or *to the man*).

Retained
direct
objective.

Owing, however, to the indirect and direct objectives being of the same form, and to the greater importance often attached to the person affected by the act, the indirect object is frequently, and with some verbs is always, made the subject, the direct object remaining after the verb: thus,

I was given a *book*; The *man* was paid his *wages*;

I was taught *music*; Our *friends* are forgiven their *faults*;

and so on. The object of the verb in such sentences is called the *retained* direct objective.

Verbs used
with indirect
objectives
alone.

129. Some verbs, like *pay*, *forgive*, and *teach*, often take their indirect object alone, as well as their direct: thus, either, with direct object,

He paid the *wages*; We forgive the *faults*; He taught *music*;

or, with indirect,

He paid the *man*; We forgive our *friends*;

He taught his *sister*.

Either object, when thus used alone, is valued as a

direct one; and it is only when we come to put them together that we see their original relation.

130. Some verbs, however, which govern a direct objective of the person, are also followed by the objective of the thing affected or produced by the act: thus,

Objective
of thing
affected or
produced.

John struck me a *blow*; She heard me my *lessons*;
and when one of these objects becomes the subject of the passive form, the other is retained in the objective after the verb. Thus, we say

I was struck a *blow*; A blow was struck *me*;
I was heard my *lessons*; My *lessons* were heard *me*.

This construction shades off into one in which second objective should be valued as adverbial: thus,

Shades into
an adverb.

He led me the *life* of a dog; She took me a *walk*;
for, while we say

I was led the *life* of a dog; I was taken a *walk*;
we do not say

The *life* of a dog was led *me*; A *walk* was taken *me*.

OBJECTIVE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

131. We have seen above (119) that a predicate adjective or noun is one which, being added to a verb is through the verb used to modify the subject.

Now it is sometimes also the case that an adjective or a noun is, through the verb, brought into a like relation to the direct object, as modifying that object. Thus, in

Factive
objective
predicate
adjective
and noun.

He made the stick *straight*,
the adjective *straight* modifies the object *stick*, by becoming a kind of addition to the verb *made*, defining the nature of the action exerted on the stick, as if he said

He *made-straight* the stick.

And we do say instead, using a derivative verb,

He *straightened* the stick,

where the adjective is, as it were, taken into the verb, and becomes a part of the assertion made by the verb alone. Occasionally, also, as in *white-wash*, the adjective forms part of a compound verb.

In the passive
construction.

Then, if we turn the construction into a passive one, making the former object *stick* the subject, *straight* becomes an ordinary predicate adjective modifying it: thus,

The stick was made *straight*.

Since, in this sentence, the straightness of the stick, is the result of the act expressed by *made*, such verbs are said to be used in a *factitive* sense; that is, in the sense of *making*, or causing, or bringing about something by means of the act which the verb signifies. And the adjective or the noun thus made by the verb to modify the object, is called a *factitive objective* predicate adjective or noun.

Other examples of this construction are

She carries her head *high*; The lightning struck him *dead*;
He held the reins *tight*; They planed the board *smooth*;
They chose her *queen*; I sang my throat *hoarse*;
They sang themselves *hoarse*; He wept himself *blind*;
She washed herself *clean*; He rubbed himself *dry*.

The con-
struction
shades into
ordinary
objective
predicate
adjective
or noun.

132. This construction shades off into one in which an adjective or a noun is made by the verb to modify its object without, however, expressing the result of the act, or entering into the assertion made by the verb alone. Thus, if we compare

He drove the man *insane*

with

He believed the man *insane*,

we see that, though in both these sentences, the predication is incomplete without the adjective *insane*; in the latter, the insanity is not the result of the act expressed by the verb, nor is the assertion that he believed-insane the man; whereas, in the former, the insanity is the result of this act, and the assertion is that he drove-insane the man. Other examples of this construction are

I believe him a *captive*; I hold it *true*;
He found the man *honest*; I consider him *liberal*.

To these the corresponding passives are

The man was believed *insane*; He was believed a *captive*;
The man was found *honest*; He is considered *liberal*.

Later, when we come to consider the constructions of the infinitive, we shall see that the infinitive *to be* is sometimes inserted between the direct objective and the objective predicate adjective or noun: thus, for example,

The subject
to the
infinitive.

I believe the man *to be* insane; I believe him *to be* a captive; in which constructions the direct object has come to seem a kind of subject to the infinitive; for such sentences are equivalent to

I believe that the man is insane; I believe that he is a captive.

133. In languages which distinguish the objective case throughout from the nominative by a different form, the predicate adjective or noun would, of course, be in the objective, as the other predicate adjective or noun (sometimes called *subjective*, for distinction's sake) in the nominative (123); but an instance of such agreement for the objective predicate cannot occur in English, except in the case of an inflected pronoun after an infinitive: thus, "I knew it to be *him*."

Agreement in
objective
predicate
construction.

Subjective
predicate
adjective
and noun.

ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

134. We have thus far been considering cases in which a noun may come to be modified by an adjective or a noun used predicatively. An adjective also, and much oftener, modifies a noun more directly, being simply added to the noun to describe it. Thus in "This man is *old*" we make the age the quality we assert; but in "This *old* man" we make the age part of the description of the man (22). An adjective thus used is called an *attributive* adjective, or is said to be used *attributively* (*attributive* means simply "ascribed" or "attached").

Attributive
adjective;
definition.

While a predicate adjective modifies only the subject or the direct object of a verb, an attributive adjective may modify a noun in any situation whatever, and is generally put before the noun.

Noun used
attributively.

135. A noun is, much less often, used to modify another noun. Thus, in

My friend, the hunter, carries his weapon, a rifle, on
his shoulder,

we have the objects the nouns *friend* and *weapon* stand for, described by the addition of *hunter* and

rifle. There are implied in the sentence the two assertions that

My friend is a hunter ; His weapon is a rifle ;
but they are only implied, not actually made.

Called
Appositive;
definition.

A noun thus used is called *appositive*, or is said to be in *apposition* with the other noun. This means “in position by the side of,” or “set alongside”; because the appositive noun seems less closely connected with the noun which it modifies, than the attributive adjective; it is, rather, an independent word, added to the other for the purpose of further describing the same thing.

Noun, apposi-
tive to a
sentence.

Sentences and members of sentences are also sometimes followed by an appositive noun, which answers to a predicate nominative: thus,

Ye are not content with your estate, a *fancy* to be plucked
out of you ;
His daughter had much talent, a *circumstance* liable to mislead.

Appositive
adjective;
definition.

136. And an adjective is also often joined to a noun in a looser and more indirect way, so much like that of the appositive noun that it is to be called an *appositive* adjective. Examples are

For these reasons, *avowed* and *secret*;
All poetry, *ancient* or *modern*;
Young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling
of the house;

where the shade of meaning is a little different from what it would be in

For these *avowed* and *secret* reasons;
All *ancient* or *modern* poetry;
The *young, handsome, and clever* page.

The nature of
the appositive
adjective.

137. We have, in the appositive adjective a more distinct suggestion of an added clause, of which the adjective would be the predicate—as if, for example, we said

Since he was young, handsome and clever, the page was, etc.
Yet the attributive adjective also may always be turned into the predicate of a descriptive clause: thus, for example, “This old man has white hair” may be turned into “This man who is old has hair which is white.” And, it is quite

impossible to draw a distinct line between the attributive and the appositive use of the adjective. If we make the description at all complicated by adding modifiers to the adjective, we may not put the adjective in the usual place of an attribute, close before the noun, but must separate it, like an appositive, from the noun. Thus, we say

No distinct line between attributive and appositive uses of adjective.

His *ruddy* countenance; The *loveliest* vale;

but

His countenance, *ruddy* with the hue of youth
A vale, *loveliest* of all vales on earth;

or

Ruddy with the hue of youth, his countenance was pleasant
to look upon.

138. The predicate noun and the predicate adjective, especially the adverbial predicate, shade off into a construction which may be valued as that of an ordinary adjective appositive to the subject or as an appositive predicate adjective, according as we associate its meaning wholly with the subject or with both subject and predicate: thus, for example,

Appositive construction of

(1). Predicate adjective and noun.

He left the court, the *victim* of the law;

He sat down, *dumb* with grief;

I had been caught up, a *straw* on the tide of life.

The factitive objective predicate adjective also shades off into a construction in which it has also an appositive value: thus, for example,

(2). Objective predicate adjective.

He made the stick *straight*,

may mean that he made the stick out of a larger piece of timber, and that, so made, it was straight.

So, too, with the ordinary objective predicate adjective: thus, for example,

He had his hands *dirty*; He ate his dinner *cold*.

139. A pronoun, which almost never takes an attributive adjective before it (24), has an appositive adjective or noun added to it just as freely as a noun: thus,

Pronoun, used with appositive adjective or noun.

We, *poor* in friends, sought love;

Tired and *hungry*, he hastened home;

You *Frenchmen* are livelier than we *English*.

And we sometimes, though rarely, find a pronoun put in apposition with a noun: thus

Pronoun, appositive to noun.

I got it from James, *him* that, etc.

Attributive
use of the
noun.

On the other hand a noun is now and then used in the manner of an attributive adjective: thus,

My hunter friend; Her soldier cousin; The drummer boy.

We may properly call such a word an *attributive* noun. Compound nouns (87) sometimes grow out of this combination.

Agreement of
attributive
and apposi-
tive words.

140. In languages, like Latin and Greek, which inflect their adjectives, and inflect their nouns more fully than English, attributive and appositive words are regularly made to agree in case, or in number and case, with the nouns (or pronouns) which they modify. But no such agreement is possible with the English adjective (with the exception of *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*: as, for example "*this* [or *that*] man," which, in the plural, becomes "*these* [or *those*] men"), because it is wholly uninflected; and it is only imperfectly made in the possessive case of the appositive noun. We are allowed to say, indeed,

The rifle is my friend's, the hunter's;

but the expression seems awkward to us, and we prefer to say the same thing in some other way: as,

It belongs to my friend, the hunter.

Or, taking both nouns as one expression, we put the sign of the possessive case only on the last: thus,

My friend the hunter's rifle.

POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUN.

Ordinary
value of
possessive
case.

141. We have seen (102) that many English nouns have an inflected form which is usually called possessive, because it is especially used, in connection with another noun, to point out the possessor of whatever that noun signifies. For example, if a book has John for its owner, we call it John's book; and, in a more figurative way, the doings that belong to a certain day are called that day's doings. If a man has debts, we call them his debts; the act performed by him is his act; the faults he has committed are his faults; and so on.

Figurative
values.

Possessive
like attribu-
tive adjective.

142. In this way, a noun in its possessive case-form becomes a modifying addition to another noun,

much as if it were an attributive adjective. Often we can put an adjective in place of the possessive, with little or no difference of meaning: thus,

The *King's* crown; The *day's* doings; *Man's* imperfections; may also be described as

The *royal* crown; The *daily* doings; *Human* imperfections.

The possessive is said to be dependent on the noun which it describes, or to be governed by it; that is to say, the modifying noun is, as it were, required or compelled by its relation to the other to take the possessive case-form.

Dependence
of the
possessive.

143. The possessive, with the noun on which it is dependent omitted, is also used in the various other constructions of the adjective: thus, as simple predicate adjective;

Used in
various other
adjective
constructions.

The book is *John's*; That crown is the *King's*;

as objective predicate,

I made the book my *sister's*;

as appositive,

That crown, the *King's*, is set with jewels.

Also, like an adjective used as a noun: thus,

John's book lies by *Harry's*. *Harry's* is on the shelf.

ADVERBIAL COMPLEMENTS.

144. As the adjective is the usual modifier of the noun, so the adverb is the usual modifier of the other member of the simple sentence, the verb; and, as we have seen, it modifies also the adjective and sometimes other adverbs.

A word which is generally an adverb has very often the value of a predicate adjective, usually with some part of the verb *be*: for example,

Functional
conversion of
the adverb.
As predicate
adjective;

The sun is *down*, the moon is *up*, and the stars are *out*.

And the adverb *so* (32) is much used as a substitute for adjectives, as well as for other parts of speech, to avoid repetition: thus,

Especially *so*.

His step was light, for his heart was *so*.

Less often, an adverb (32) is used as an appositive adjective: thus,

As apposi-
tive adjective.

Ask at the house next *above*; The wall *within*, and
that *without*.

As attributive adjective.

Sometimes (and less properly), an adverb is used even as an attributive adjective: thus,

The *above* passage; The *then* ruler;
My *sometime* friend; His *almost* impudence of manner.

As object of a preposition.

And an adverb may be used as object of a preposition with the value of a noun: thus,

From *above*, since *when*, till *now*, at *once*.

Objective case of nouns used as adverb.

145. While, as we have seen, our noun has a special case-form, the possessive, for adjective use, the objective case is sometimes used in the manner of an adverb: that is to say, to modify a verb or an adjective or even an adverb. Examples are:

(1). With verbs:

They walked a *mile*; He sat an *hour*; It faces both *ways*;
Our friend died last *night*; It fell a long *distance*.

And the conjunctive pronoun *that* is sometimes used colloquially in the same way: thus, for example,

This is the way *that* he went.

(2). With adjectives:

The river is a *mile* broad here;
A sermon two *hours* long; He is ten *years* old;
A field three *acres* larger than another.

(3). With adverbs:

He lives a long *distance* off; They watched all *night* long;
His house is a great *deal* better built;
It will be all the same a hundred *years* hence.

Why this relation is valued as objective.

146. As we do not use the inflected pronouns in this way, and as our nouns never have different forms in the nominative and objective, there is nothing now to show that the case thus used is really the objective. But this appears from the usage in older English and in other languages; and we might also infer it from the fact that we often use a preposition to connect such a noun with the word which it modifies: thus,

He sat *for* an hour; It faces *in* both directions;
larger *by* three acres.

Definition of adverbial objective.

We may best call this use of the noun, therefore, an *adverbial objective*; that is, an objective case used with the value of an adverb.

147. It is plain enough, for example, in

He walked a *mile*,

Adverbial
objective
valued as a
direct
objective.

that *mile* is an adverbial objective; the verb being intransitive as usual. And yet, in such a sentence, the noun thus used, sometimes so far assumes the character of an object that we turn it into the subject of a passive phrase (as we sometimes do an indirect object also [128]): thus,

A *mile* was walked by him in twelve minutes.

148. It is evident, therefore, that there is no hard and fast dividing line between the so-called objective case, which is "governed" by the verb, and the adverbial objective, which "modifies" it. Indeed, although it has long been usual in grammar to make a distinction between the objects and the adverbial complements of the verb, the objects are really adverbial also: thus, in

Objectives
"governed"
by verbs,
really
adverbial
modifiers.

I gave him a book, and I go home,

him, *book*, and *home* limit the meaning of the verbs in their respective sentences. The general function is the same; the species of function is different, *book* and *him* indicating respectively the objects directly and indirectly affected by the act, and *home* indicating the limit of the motion.

149. The adverbial objective is used especially to express measure; whether duration of time, or extent of distance or space, or weight, or number, or value, and the like. But it also expresses the time at which anything happened; and much more rarely, manner, as in

Adverbial
objectives,
especially
used to
express
measure.

Have it your own *way*; He was bound *hand* and *foot*;

Old John of Gaunt hath sent *post-haste*; He came full *speed*.

Now and then, such an adverbial objective is, like the adverb, added to a noun, with an appositive adjective value: thus,

Used as
appositive
adjective.

My dream last *night*; His adventures this *day*.

ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION.

150. There is yet another way in which a noun (or pronoun) with an appositive adjective or a word or phrase of the same value, is sometimes made to modify some word or phrase in a sentence, without having its relation to what it modifies denoted either

by a case-form or by a connecting word. Thus we say

He lay down, his *heart* heavy with sorrow;
 He flies, wild *terror* in his look;
 They charged, *sword* in hand and *visor* down;
 The mountain rose, *height* above height;
I being willing, they went away together;
 All loose her negligent *attire*,
 All loose her golden *hair*,
 Hung Margaret o'er her slaughtered sire.

Absolute construction, valued as adverbial predicate.

The noun and the appositive together signify an accompanying trait or circumstance; and they are used in the sentence, generally in the manner of an adverbial predicate adjective. It is as if *with* or *having*, or a conjunction and the verb *be*, or something of the kind, which might have been used, were omitted: thus,

He lay down, having his heart heavy, etc.;
 He lay down, while his heart was heavy, etc.;
 He flies with wild terror in his look;
 He flies, and wild terror is in his look.

Its modern equivalent.

And, indeed, we often find the preposition *with* expressed in modern English, when, in older English, only the absolute construction would be used: thus,
With the enemy invading our country, it was my duty to remain;
 How could it ever happen, *with* everybody against it.

Why called 'absolute.'

A word, used like *heart*, *terror*, etc., above, is said to be used *absolutely*, or to be in *absolute* construction, because it appears to stand as if "cut loose," so far as concerns its grammatical construction, from the sentence to which it belongs; for the usual sign of relation to the words it modifies is wanting.

The case used, the nominative.

41.

The absolute construction is especially common with a participle modifying the noun or pronoun; and the pronoun, which is very rare in this construction except with a participle, shows that the case now used is regularly the nominative.

THE PREPOSITION.

The nature of a preposition.

151. A preposition we have seen (27) to be a connecting word by means of which a noun or pronoun is brought into relation with another word, thus forming with the noun or pronoun a phrase which modifies the other word in some way defined by the preposition. The relations thus expressed are most

like that expressed by the case-inflection of the noun. And some languages have other case-forms to express other relations which we express by prepositions only: for example, *by*, *from* ("ablative" case), *in* ("locative" case), and *with* ("instrumental" case).

Relations expressed.

The noun or pronoun attached to another word by the preposition is called the object of the preposition, or is said to be governed by it, and is put in the objective case. And a preposition is sometimes followed by a construction which resembles that of the objective predicate adjective used appositively (138): thus, for example,

Its government.

He came in with his hands *dirty*.

152. The preposition and its object form together what is called a *prepositional* phrase, to distinguish it from the phrase (as, for example, *out of*, *as regards*, *instead of*) which has the value of a preposition and is called a *preposition* phrase (36). The special duty of a preposition is to form a prepositional phrase, and we shall, therefore, now consider the general syntax of such a phrase, taking up the more difficult relations hereafter.

Preposition and Prepositional phrases.

153. The prepositional phrase has a value in the sentence resembling that of the adjective and the adverb; and it is, accordingly, to be estimated as an *adjective* or *adverb* phrase. Thus, for example:

Values of the prepositional phrase.

Used in the constructions of the adjective and adverb.

As adverb:

It burned *to the ground*; He spoke *with anger*;
He stood *in this place*;

As appositive adjective:

A house *of wood*; a man *of truth*; a residence *in the suburbs*;

As predicate adjective:

This house is *of wood*; He seems *of good repute*;

As objective predicate adjective:

They danced themselves *out of breath*;
He drove the man *out of his wits*;

As modifiers in the absolute construction:

They left the convention, their minds *at ease*;

As adverbial objective:

He ran *for a mile*; He came *at full speed*.

So, too, like words ordinarily used as adjectives or adverbs, they may be used as subjects of verbs or objects of prepositions:

On the table is the best place; The cat ran from *under the barn*.

And they may be modified by adverbs: thus, for example,

It is *much* to my liking; He stood *very much* to one side.

Some prepositional adverb-phrases, stereotyped.

154. Many prepositional adverb-phrases have assumed such a stereotyped form that the words are hardly to be taken apart and parsed separately: thus, for example,

in fact, at hand, on the whole, in time; in vain, at present.

Sometimes, indeed, such phrases turn into compounds, without change: thus, *indeed*, *instead*; or with phonetic change, due to stress (70 [1]): thus, *aboard*, *abreast*; in which *a* represents *an*, the M.E. form of *on*.

INTERJECTION.

Interjections, sometimes incomplete exclamations.

155. The interjections, as we have seen (30), are not, in the ordinary sense, parts of speech, as they do not form part of a sentence. Each interjection is, in a certain way, an undivided sentence put in the language of feeling rather than in that of reason. Sometimes, however, other words are required to complete the exclamation (53), and the interjection then resembles an incomplete sentence: thus,

Ah me! Alas the day! O, for a calm, a thankful heart;

which might be thus expressed in the language of reason:

I pity me; I mourn the day; I wish for a calm, a thankful heart.

The Nominative of address.

156. The *O* is very often used in address, with the nominative case (the so-called "vocative" or "calling" case of Latin or Greek) of the pronoun of the second person and with the common case of the noun: thus,

O thou that bringest good tidings! Give ear, *O ye heavens!*

Justice, *O royal duke!* To your tents, *O Israel!*

Thus used, the noun or pronoun is said to be in the *nominative of address*.

VII. VERBS.

157. So far we have considered in a general way the word, phrase, and clause: we will now examine them more fully in regard to their nature and function. And, as when dealing with the parts of speech, we will begin with the verb.

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

Verbs are so varied in meaning that it is impossible to classify them fully on this basis. There is a certain difference in use which separates them into two classes—transitive and intransitive; but, as we shall now see, these classes shade into each other and it is not always possible to make this distinction. Strictly speaking, also, as the copula *be* is a mere connective of assertion, and as all other verbs are equivalent to the copula and a predicate noun or adjective modifying the subject (119 [1]), we should first make two classes: the *copula* and *adjective* verbs; that is, verbs which assert some description of the thing the subject stands for; the adjective verbs being then classified as transitive and intransitive. We have already seen (125) that some verbs that are ordinarily intransitive may become transitive, and that verbs that are ordinarily transitive may, without exception, be used without an expressed object, when they signify simply the doing of the act without taking into account to whom or to what it is done (124).

Transitive and intransitive; shade into each other.

Copula and adjective-verbs.

158. This use has given rise to some classes of transitive verbs of peculiar meanings:

Peculiar transitive verbs:

(1). When the object, if expressed, would represent the same notion as the subject, the verb is called *reflexive* (125). Examples are

(1). Reflexive.

The sun seems *to move*; Clouds *spread* over the sky;
He *stopped* and then *turned*; He *prepared* for the examination;
that is, “The sun seems *to move itself*”; “Clouds *spread*

themselves over the sky"; and so on. With such verbs in older English and in many other modern languages (French, for instance,) the pronoun-object is often expressed; but the present tendency is to extend this class even when the use of the object would be proper; thus, for example,

When are you going to *wash*?

Shade into
intransitives.

Sometimes after a transitive verb has become reflexive, we lose sight of its transitive meaning and come to look upon it as an ordinary intransitive verb; that is, the reflexive verb shades off into the intransitive. Thus, in "He *washed* and *shaved* in a hurry," we feel the reflexive meaning; but, in "He *stopped* short," and still more in "He *stopped* for the night" or "He *stole* away," the reflexive meaning is not evident.

(2). Reciprocal.

(2). A variety of the reflexive verb shows itself in such constructions as

Fox-terriers nearly always *fight* when they *meet*.

Shade into
intransitives.

Here, the objects omitted after *fight* and *meet*, are *one another*, or *each other*; so that the notion of *reciprocity* they express belongs to the verb, which is, therefore, called *reciprocal*. And, as in the case of reflexive verbs, the reciprocal meaning may not remain evident and the verb may be valued as intransitive: thus,

We shall *meet* upon the river.

(3). Middle.

(3). The subject of the verb may represent logically the direct object of the act: thus, for example,

Drink from the goblet while it *fills*; The book *sells* well;
Honey tastes *sweet*; The message *reads* well;
The cakes *ate* short and crisp;

where we mean "while somebody or something fills it"; and so on. The agent is here omitted on account of its indefiniteness, just as is the object in "Men *love* and *hate*."

In *fills*, *sells*, etc., the sense is passive while the form is active. Verbs so used are called *middle*, as if they expressed a meaning between the active and the passive conjugation. This use is really a result and extension of the reflexive use of the verb; for we might take *fills* above as meaning "fills itself."

Causatives,
formed:

159. Another class of transitive verbs deserve notice on account of their origin and their meaning. As we have

already seen (125 [3]), some causative verbs have a special form to express their meaning. Examples are

bite, <i>bait</i> ;	drink, <i>drench</i> ;	quail, <i>quell</i> ;
blink, <i>blench</i> ;	fall, <i>fell</i> ;	rise, <i>raise</i> ;
can, <i>ken</i> ;	fare, <i>ferry</i> ;	sit, <i>set</i> ;
clink, <i>clench</i> ;	lie, <i>lay</i> ;	swoop, <i>sweep</i> .

Causal verbs were usually derived from the stem of the gradation past tenses (70), by adding an *i*; that is, by mutation: thus, (1). By gradation and mutation,

drench <*drene-an* (mut. infin.)>*dranc-i-an* (causal infin.)
<*dranc*, stem of grad. past of O.E. *drinc-an*, to drink.

But in *raise* we have an example of a causal verb formed from a gradation stem alone, because the Old Norse *ei* was not subject to mutation: (2). By gradation,

raise <*reis-a* (causal infin.)>*reis*, stem of grad. past of
O.N. *ris-a*, "to rise."

And in *fell*, we have an example of a causal verb formed from the present stem; that is, by mutation alone: thus, (3). By mutation.

fell <stem of *fell-an* (mut. infin.)>*fall-i-an* (causal infin.)
<O.E. *fall-an*, "to fall."

In *ferry*, the *-y* represents the *i* of the infinitive ending of *fer-i-an*, the mut. infin. from the O.E. *far-an*, "to fare."

160. We have already considered the uses of intransitive verbs with peculiar objects (125). A few others have peculiar uses with *it* as subject, when it does not represent a notion present to the mind but only helps to express that some action or process is going on. Such verbs are called *impersonal*, and are said to be used *impersonally* (because they admit of no variation of *person*). Examples are Impersonal verbs.

It rains; *It is* fine weather; *It grew* dark;
It will fare ill with him.

Only those verbs, however, are strictly impersonal which occur in sentences without any imaginable subject, as in "It rains," when the meaning is simply that raining is taking place. Such sentences shade off into others in which the subjects, though almost definable, are for the moment wholly undefined to the speaker's mind: thus,

It is very dark; *It is* growing dark; *Is it come* to this?

The number of impersonal verbs has decreased since the

Cause of
decrease.

Elizabethan period owing to the disappearance of inflections, and the modern tendency to definiteness of expression. Thus, for example, in the older "It *likes* me" (that is, "It is agreeable to me"), the *me* is a dative, but in present English the sentence would have another meaning.

ACCORDING TO FORM.

161. Verbs are divided into two great classes, or *conjugations* (101), according to the form used to express past time. The general characteristics of these conjugations are as follows:

Character-
istics of Old
Conjugation:
Gradation
pasts.

(1). In one conjugation there is no added ending for the past tense, but its vowel-sound, the result of gradation (70), is different from that of the stem, thus forming what are called *gradation* pasts; the perfect participle ends in *-n* or *-en*; and its vowel-sound is the same as that of the stem or of the past, or else is different from both: thus,

Root	Infin.,	give;	past tense,	gave;	perf. part.,	given;
	"	bite;	"	bit;	"	bitten;
	"	fly;	"	flew;	"	flown.

This is called the *old* conjugation, because the verbs belonging to it are primitive verbs of the Teutonic sub-family.

Character-
istics of New
Conjugation:
Tongue-stop
pasts.

(2). In the other conjugation, the past tense and the perf. participle are formed, both alike, by the addition to the stem, or root infinitive (106), of the tongue-stop suffix *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t* (60), thus forming what are called *tongue-stop* pasts: for example

Root	Infin.,	love;	past,	loved;	p. part.,	loved	(pr. <i>d</i>)
	"	wish;	"	wished;	"	wished	(pr. <i>t</i>)
	"	load;	"	loaded;	"	loaded	(pr. <i>ed</i>)

This is called the *new* conjugation, because nearly all the verbs of this conjugation are of later origin than those of the other. Owing to the mode of forming the past tense, the Old conjugation is called by some the *vowel* conjugation, and the New, the *consonantal*. Sometimes, also, the Old conjugation is called the *strong*, and the New the *weak*; it being

Consonantal
and Vowel,
Weak and
Strong con-
jugations.

fancifully represented that the Old conjugation was *strong* enough to form its past tense without outside help, whereas the New was too *weak* to do so.

A difference between the vowels of the past and the present (173), is found in a few verbs which take the tongue-stop suffix: thus, for example,

Tongue-stop
pasts with
mutated
presents.

Sell, sold; tell, told; seek, sought; buy, bought.

The distinction between the New and the Old conjugation consists, therefore, in the adding or the not adding to the stem of a tongue-stop consonant to form the past tense, not in the differentiation of the vowels.

Distinction
between Old
and New
Conjugations

Although one conjugation is called the New, both conjugations are found in Gothic, the oldest of the extant Teutonic languages. Few, however, of the root-verbs belong to the New conjugation, and there are cases in which the root-verb has disappeared and only the derivative of the New conjugation remains. In Old English, too, as in Modern English, a newly formed verb always belongs to the New conjugation.

Both found
in Gothic.

162. In the original Arian, the pasts were formed by doubling the root, with phonetic changes, due to stress—a process known as *reduplication*. This was the regular mode in ancient Greek, as, for example, in *pheug-o* (I flee), *pe-pheug-a*; *tupt-o* (I strike), *te-tuph-a*; and there are traces of it in Latin—in the third, and probably oldest, conjugation—thus, for example, *can-o*, *ce-cin-i*. In the Teutonic languages, this mode of formation was gradually supplanted by vowel-gradation—to such an extent, indeed, that, in present English, reduplication has left no undoubted traces of its presence. It was preserved perfectly only in the Gothic. From the evidence in this language, a few of our verbs are believed to owe their pasts to reduplication, and so are a connecting link between the Teutonic and the Latin and Greek languages. Gradation has also affected the forms produced by reduplication.

Arian Redu-
plication;

Gave way to
gradation;

Vowel-gradation, in turn, gave place to the tongue-stop suffix of the New Conjugation (*-de* or *-te*, with or without a connecting vowel and with *-e* final sounded). As to the origin of this suffix, little is known. Some years ago,

And grada-
tion, to the
tongue-stop
suffix.

Origin of the
tongue-stop
suffix.

scholars supposed it to be a development from the root of our verb *do*; so that, such a form as *loved* would be the equivalent of *love-did*. This theory, however, has been given up or greatly modified, and all that is known for certain is that the suffix originated in an Arian suffix which became specialized for this purpose in the Teutonic sub-family only.

PARADIGMS OF CONJUGATIONS.

Paradigms of
love and *give*
contrasted.

163.—Below are given, by way of model, and for reference in what follows, all the forms of two regular verbs, one from each conjugation :

NEW CONJUGATION.

OLD CONJUGATION.

I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Person.	Sing.	Plural	Sing.	Plural.
1.	love	love	give	give
2.	(lovest)	love	(givest)	give
3.	loves (loveth)	love	gives (giveth)	give

Past Tense.

1.	loved	loved	gave	gave
2.	(lovedst)	loved	(gavest)	gave
3.	loved	loved	gave	gave

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1, 2, 3.	love	give
----------	------	------

Past Tense.

1, 2, 3.	loved	gave
----------	-------	------

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2.	love	give
----	------	------

II.—DERIVED FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

love, to love	give, to give
---------------	---------------

GERUND.

loving	giving
--------	--------

IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

loving	giving
--------	--------

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

loved	given
-------	-------

Number of
different
forms in
each.

164. As is shown by the paradigm, the regular verbs of the New conjugation have only six actually different forms : thus,

love, lovest, loves (or loveth), loved, lovedst, loving ;

while the regular verbs of the Old conjugation have seven; thus,

give, givest, gives (or giveth), gave, gavest, giving, given.

In both conjugations also, the root-infinitive, the imperative, and the present tense in the subjunctive and the plural and first person singular of the indicative, are the same as the stem; and the imperfect participle and the gerund differ only by adding *-ing*. We need, therefore, know only the root-infinitive, the past tense, and the perfect participle, in order to understand the whole conjugation of any verb. Hence these three are called the *principal* parts, and, in describing any verb they are to be given.

Principal parts.

As is also shown by the paradigm, the inflections for person and number are *-st*, *-s*, and *-th*.

In the indicative the second person singular adds *-st*, in both tenses. The third person singular is like the first in the past; but in the present, adds *-s* or *-th*. Of these forms, the second person singular ending in *-st* and the third person in *-th*, once in common use, are found only in the higher and the solemn style; and for the second person singular we ordinarily use the second person plural; so that *-s* is the only inflection for person and number in common use in present English.

Inflections of indicative for person and number.

-S, the only inflection in common use.

The addition to the verb-stem of the personal endings, *-st*, *-s* and *-th*, is sometimes accompanied with various modifications of the sounds for greater ease of pronunciation (71), or of spelling to indicate the sound to the eye, or of both sounds and spelling.

Changes of sound and spelling.

The *s*-inflection of the third person singular becomes the sound of

(1). Voiced *iz* after the hiss-sounds (57) *s*, *z*, *sh*, (*ch=tsh*, and *j=dz*), thus in writing:

hisses, buzzes, rushes, touches, judges.

(2). Voiced *z* after the other voiced consonants and the vowels: thus,

dabs, sins, hoes, rows, adds, begs.

- (3). Voiceless *s*, after voiceless consonants: thus,
hits, scoffs, mocks, raps.

The archaic *st*- and *th*-sounds regularly form an additional syllable, with various modifications of the spelling: thus,

lov-*est*, lov-*eth*; run-*n-est*, run-*n-eth*;
carr-*i-est*, carr-*i-eth*; disabl-*est*, disabl-*eth* (68).

Sometimes, after a voiced consonant, the *-st* does not make an additional syllable: thus, *castedst*, and *lov'st* for *lovest*.

Subjunctive
and impera-
tive, invar-
iable.

The subjunctive and the imperative have no variations for mood, person, or number; the imperative forms being the same as those of the present subjunctive, and the subjunctive forms being the same as the corresponding indicative forms when uninflected.

The preceding are the regular forms; the exceptions, of which there are a few, will be taken up further on.

Origin and
decay of
person and
number
inflections.

165. The variation of the verb to show the person and the number of its subject originated and was serviceable in the synthetic condition of our language, to show what the subject was when the order of the words in the sentence was not fixed as at present. It began to disappear while the language was becoming analytic and the order of the words was coming into use to show their relations. As the following O. E. conjugations show, this variation was the rule in the earlier stages. In present English it has become the exception: it is now a mere survival which we could dispense with, and is a cause of confusion among the uneducated, whose language, of course, shows best the natural tendencies.

THE VERB IN OLD ENGLISH.

Reference
paradigms,
contrasting
O. E. and
Mod. E.
verbal inflec-
tions.

166. The following is a paradigm of *bindan*, an O. E. verb of the Old conjugation. To it are appended those forms of *hælan* of the New, the inflections or the suffixes of which are different from those of the corresponding forms of the paradigm of the Old conjugation. These O. E. forms are accompanied by the Early, Middle, and Modern English forms, which will serve to convey a general idea of the difference between the O. E. inflected and the Mod. E. uninflected system, and of the process by which the O. E. inflections have been reduced.

OLD CONJUGATION.

OLD ENGLISH. EARLY AND MIDDLE ENGLISH. MODERN ENGLISH.

I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Person.			
1.	bind- <i>e</i>	bind- <i>e</i>	bind
2.	bind- <i>est</i>	bind- <i>est</i> (- <i>es</i> , - <i>is</i> , - <i>ys</i> , in Northern dialect)	(bind- <i>est</i>)
3.	bind- <i>eth</i>	bind- <i>eth</i> , <i>bint</i> (and - <i>es</i> - <i>is</i> , - <i>ys</i> in Northern dialect)	bind- <i>s</i> (bind- <i>eth</i>)

Plural.

1, 2, 3.	bind- <i>ath</i>	bind- <i>eth</i> , bind- <i>e</i> (- <i>es</i> , - <i>is</i> , and - <i>ys</i> , in Northern dialect; - <i>en</i> in Midland)	bind
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Past Tense.

Singular.

1.	band	band	bound
2.	bund- <i>e</i>	bond- <i>e</i>	(bound- <i>est</i>)
3.	band	band (bond)	bound

Plural.

1, 2, 3.	{ bundon, or bundun	bond- <i>en</i> , bond- <i>e</i> , bond,	bound
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SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1, 2, 3.	bind- <i>e</i>	bind- <i>e</i>	bind
----------	----------------	----------------	------

Plural.

1, 2, 3.	{ bind- <i>an</i> or - <i>en</i>	bind- <i>en</i> , bind- <i>e</i>	bind
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Past Tense.

Singular.

1, 2, 3.	bund- <i>e</i>	bond- <i>e</i>	bound
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Plural.

1, 2, 3.	{ bund- <i>en</i> , and - <i>on</i>	bond- <i>en</i> , bond - <i>e</i>	bound
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IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

2.	bind	bind	bind
----	------	------	------

Plural.

2.	bind- <i>ath</i>	bind- <i>eth</i> (- <i>es</i> in Northern dialects)	bind
----	------------------	---	------

OLD CONJUGATION.

OLD ENGLISH. EARLY AND MIDDLE ENGLISH. MODERN ENGLISH

II.—DERIVED FORMS.

(Inflected in Old English as nouns and adjectives.)

INFINITIVE.

Nominative and Accusative.

bind-*an* bind-*en*, bind-*e* bind, to bind

Dative (or Gerundial) Infinitive.

tó bind-*enne*, -*ene*, -*en*, -*e*;
 tó bind-*anne* sometimes confused to bind
 with imperf. part.

IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

bind-*ende* bind-*ende* (-*inde*, -*and*,
 -*ande*, -*inge*, -*ing*) binding

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

(*ge*-)bund-*en* (*y*- or *i*-)bond-*en*, bond-*e*,
 bond, bound-*en*, bound bound

NEW CONJUGATION.

I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

Singular.

- | | | | |
|----|--------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | hǽl- <i>de</i> | hel- <i>e-de</i> , hel- <i>e-d</i> | heal- <i>ed</i> |
| 2. | hǽl- <i>de-st</i> | hel- <i>e-dest</i> | (heal- <i>ed-st</i>) |
| 3. | hǽl- <i>de</i> | hel- <i>e-de</i> , hel- <i>e-d</i> | heal- <i>ed</i> |

Plural.

- | | | | |
|----------|------------------|---|-----------------|
| 1, 2, 3. | hǽl- <i>don</i> | hel- <i>e-den</i> , hel- <i>ed-e</i> , hel- <i>ed</i> | heal- <i>ed</i> |
|----------|------------------|---|-----------------|

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

Singular.

- | | | | |
|----------|-----------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1, 2, 3. | hǽl- <i>de</i> | hel- <i>e-de</i> , hel- <i>e-d</i> | heal- <i>ed</i> |
|----------|-----------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|

Plural.

- | | | | |
|----------|---|--|-----------------|
| 1, 2, 3. | { hǽl- <i>den</i> ,
or - <i>don</i> | hel- <i>e-den</i> , - <i>e-de</i> , and - <i>e-d</i> | heal- <i>ed</i> |
|----------|---|--|-----------------|

II.—DERIVED FORMS

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

(*ge*-)hǽl-*ed* (*y*- or *i*-) hel-*ed* heal-*ed*

The inflections of the present tenses, the imperative mood, the root-infinitive, and the imperfect participle of *hælan* are the same as those of the corresponding forms of *bindan*.

NEW CONJUGATION.

167. In the New conjugation, the tongue-stop suffix makes an additional syllable only after another tongue-stop consonant, when, of course, the ending could not otherwise be pronounced: thus, *love, loved*; but *load, load-ed*. Modifications
of tongue-
stop suffix.

In many verbs of this class *-t* was often written instead of an original *-d* in early printed literature of Modern English, and some people are beginning to write it again.

In solemn styles of reading and speaking, the *-ed* is sometimes sounded still as a separate syllable after all stems. Then, of course, the *-d* has the voiced sound as there is no association, and, consequently, no need for assimilation (71) with a preceding voiceless sound.

These are the regular methods. But a great many verbs of this conjugation are more or less irregular, some even to such a degree and in such ways, that it might seem doubtful whether they ought not to be classed with verbs of the Old conjugation.

IRREGULAR CLASSES.

168. (1). As a mere matter of spelling, in some verbs in which the *-d* is pronounced like a *t*, either *-ed* or *-t* is allowed to be written (especially in the participle): thus, TYPE VERBS:
(1). *dress,*
dressed, or
drest;

dress, dressed or drest; *bless, blessed or blest*; *pass, passed or past*.

And, as we saw above, this class is being extended beyond what has for some time been usual.

(2). Some verbs, after a final *n* or *l* sound in the stem, have either *-ed* (pronounced as *-d*), or *-t*, probably owing to the difficulty in pronouncing the voiced consonants together: *burn, burned,*
or *burnt*.

<i>burn</i> <i>burned or burnt</i>	<i>smell</i> <i>smelled or smelt</i>
<i>dwell</i> <i>dwelled or dwelt</i>	<i>spell</i> <i>spelled or spelt</i>
<i>learn</i> <i>learned or learnt</i>	<i>spill</i> <i>spilled or spilt</i>
<i>pen</i> <i>penned or pent</i>	<i>spoil</i> <i>spoiled or spoilt</i>

169. Some verbs, of which the root ends in *d* after *l* or *n* or *r*, either add *-ed*, or simply change the final *-d* into *-t*.

(2). *bend*,
bent, *bent*;
blend,
blended,
blent.

This *-t* was originally *-d + de*, which, as a result of stress and assimilation became *-de*, then *-te*, and finally *-t*:

bend	bent	{ bended bent	gird	{ girded girt	{ girded girt
blend	blended	{ blended blent	lend	{ lent rent	{ lent rent
build	built	{ builded built	send	{ sent spend	{ sent spend
gild	{ gilded gilt	{ gilded gilt	wend	{ wended went	{ wended went

(3). *creep*,
crept;
leap, *leaped*,
or *leapt*.

170. (1). Verbs which add *-t* (final *-e* having disappeared) and shorten the vowel of the stem in pronunciation, as often happens when two or more consonants come together:

creep	crept	lean	leaned or leant
deal	dealt	leap	leaped or leapt
dream	dreamed or dreamt	mean	meant
feel	felt	sleep	slept
kneel	kneeled or knelt	sweep	swept
keep	kept	weep	wept

reave, *reft*.

(2). In a few verbs which have the same irregularity as those in (1) above, the final voiced consonant of the present is represented by the corresponding voiceless consonant in the past and p. part. In these verbs the original voiceless consonant of the present has become voiced by stress and assimilation between two vowels (thus, O. E. *bereáfian*):

bereave	bereaved or bereft	leave	left
reave	reft	lose	lost

Cleave, "split" of the Old conjugation, has also *cleft*. *Cleave*, "adhere," is regular, but *clave* is sometimes used as its past. These two verbs were at one time confounded and their pasts have been interchanged. *Cleft* rightly belongs to the New verb and *clave* to the Old verb. *Reave* is now obsolete.

flee, *fled*.

(3). A few verbs show a shortening of the vowel-sound, adding the voiced *-d*:

flee	fled	say	said	shoe	shod.
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Heard from *hear* is a case by itself, but is most like to this class.

171. By the disappearance of final *-e*, the past and p. part. of some verbs, originally ending in *-de* or *-te*,

become like the present stems except that the long vowels become shortened: (4). *bleed*, *bled*.

bleed	bled	lead	led	speed	sped
breed	bred	meet	met	light	lit
feed	fed	read	read	betide	betid

Light has been confounded with *light* (or *alight*) "come down," and the two forms *lighted* and *lit* are used indifferently. *Betide* is archaic, especially in the past and participle.

172. A good many verbs ending in *-t* or *-d*, generally after a short vowel, have undergone similar changes to those in par. 170, except that their vowel being already short, undergoes no further change: thus, (5). *cast*, invariable; *wet*, *wetted*.

cast	put	shred	spread
cost	quit or quitted	shut	sweat or sweated
cut	rid	slit	thrust
hit	set	spit	wet or wetted
hurt	shed	split	whet or whetted
knit or knitted			

Spit had a past *spat* which is still used. Of all these verbs the archaic second person singular of the past tense is of the longer form, to allow the voiceless *st*-sound to be added (164): thus *castedst*, etc.

173. A certain class add the tongue-stop suffix and also change the vowel-sound of the stem. Originally, these verbs had, between the infinitive ending and the stem, an *i* which caused vowel-mutation: thus, the root of *sell* is *sal* (seen in our *sale*); so that the O. E. *sellan* was once *salian*, and what has really changed is the present, not the past: (6). Tongue-stop pasts with mutated presents.

beseech	besought	sell	sold	tell	told
buy	bought	seek	sought	work	{ wrought
catch	caught	teach	taught		{ or worked
bring	brought	think	thought		

Besides *think*, there is an archaic present of the same form but different meaning, appearing now only in the expression *methinks*, "it seems to me." In Old English, there were two verbs differing only in their vowels—one *thencean*, "to think," and the other *thyncean*, "to seem."

With these verbs are to be classed *fraught* (from *freight*) now used as an adjective (formerly as a past also) and in a metaphorical sense; and *distraught* (from *distract*); but the New *freighted* and *distracted* have displaced these forms except in the solemn style. *Catch*, *distract*, and *freight* were

not O.E. verbs, but took *caught*, *distraught*, and *fraught* by analogy.

(7). Contract-
ed: *have*
make, clothe

174. In the past tense and p. part. the three verbs *have*, *make*, and *clothe* are shortened by a contraction (due to stress) which has produced the loss of the final consonant of the stem: thus, *had*, O.E. *hæfde*, later, *hedde*, or *hadde*; *made*, O.E. *macode*, which early lost the *c*; and *clad*, O.E. *clæth-de*, and *ge-clad-ed* (possibly Norse); so that *clothe* has the uncontracted form *clothed* as well as *clad*.

INFLECTIONS.

Irregular
inflections:
have, need.

175. The tense-inflection of the New verb is almost always regular (164). But *have* is, by contraction, irregular in the present singular: thus,

I have, thou hast (=havest) he has (=haves).

Need has, in the third person singular, *needs* or *need*. Present English prefers *need* when the verb is followed by the root-infinitive (usually with *not* in assertive sentences): thus,

Need he go? He *need* not go;

but *needs* in other cases: thus,

He *needs* to go; He *needs* more courage.

In these constructions *needs* has a stronger meaning than *need*.

OLD CONJUGATION.

Decay of the
O.E. Old con-
jugation.

176. In Old English, there were almost three hundred simple verbs of the Old conjugation, not to speak of numerous derivatives therefrom. Of these, only seventy-eight have survived in present English. Even in Old English, however, gradation had ceased to be an active force and no additions were made to the Old conjugation. And, under the influence of analogy, not only did all newly formed verbs belong to the New conjugation, but fourteen of the seventy-eight verbs have now New forms as well, and about eighty-eight of the other verbs of the Old conjugation now belong wholly to the New.

Classification
of O. E.
Old verbs.

177. The regular verbs of the Old conjugation fall into a number of distinct classes; but the grounds of the division are to be seen only in the older forms of English, and in some of the other languages related to English, and the limits of the classes have been very much confused by irregular changes.

One cause of these irregularities is the fact (166) that the stem of the sec. pers. sing. and of all the plural persons had not always the same vowel as the stem of the first and third pers. sing. Traces of this difference are still seen in *were*, the pl. of *was*, and in the varying pasts of some verbs: thus, for example, *swim* and *begin* have *swam* and *began*, while *spin* and *fling* have *spun* and *flung*, *a* being the vowel of the sing. in Old English and *u* being that of the plural. And, in the case of some verbs, there is still uncertainty as to the use of *a* or *u* (178).

Chief causes of modern irregularities.

Another cause has been the tendency (due to analogy) to change the vowel either of the past tense or of the participle, so as to make these two forms agree with each other. Thus, for instance, *tare* and *brake*, the old pasts of *tear* and *break*, have been replaced by *tore* and *broke*, which contain the vowel of the participles *torn* and *broken*. And the old p. participles *holden*, *sit* (or *sitten*), *standen*, have given way to the past forms *held*, *sat*, *stood*.

Moreover, the *-en* or *-n*, formerly the constant ending of the perfect participle, is now entirely lost in many verbs, as in the old forms, *slungen*, *rungen*, *foughten*. In other verbs, again, it may be retained or left off, with a marked tendency to discard the ending: thus, *gotten* and *got*, *trodden* and *trod*, *chidden* and *chid*.

Hence, in classifying the verbs of the Old conjugation, we do not try to distinguish the irregular from the regular ones, and merely group together those which, as we use them now, are on the whole most alike in their inflection.

Classification of modern O.E. verbs.

CLASSES.

178. Verbs with short *-i* in the present; *i* as in *drink* in the present; and *a* as in *drank*, or *u* as in *flung* in the past. Here may also be placed *hung*, *run*, and *strike* on account of the vowel-sounds of the past and p.p., although they have not short *-i* in the present:

TYPE-VERBS.

(1). *drink*,
drank,
drunk
cling, *clung*,
clung.

(1).	drink	drank	drunk	sling	slung	slung
	begin	began	begun	slink	slunk	slunk
	ring	rang	rung	spin	spun	spun
	shrink	shrank	shrunk	stick	stuck	stuck
	sing	sang	sung	stink	stunk	stunk
	sink	sank	sunk	sting	stung	stung
	spring	sprang	sprung	string	strung	strung
	swim	swam	swum	swing	swung	swung
	run	ran	run	wir	won	won
(2).	cling	clung	clung	wring	wrung	wrung
	dig	dug	dug	hang	hung	hung
	fling	flung	flung	strike	struck	struck

Drunken, shrunken, sunken, formerly participles, are now chiefly used as adjectives; and to avoid confusion with the adjective *drunk*, *drank* is sometimes used as the p.p., but not by the best writers and speakers.

The pasts of the verbs in (1), except *run*, have sometimes their pasts like their p.p., but not in good usage; *stink* in (2) has sometimes *stank*; and *span*, a past of *spin*, is now out of use. *Dig* is also of the New conjugation, to which it belonged in Old English. *Stricken*, a p.p. of *strike*, is now used as an adjective, generally in the higher style of composition. *Hanged* means "executed": the modern verb represents two O.E. verbs, *hóng* and *hangian*.

(2). *Drive*,
drove,
driven;

bind, *bound*
bound;
bite, *bit*,
bitten.

179. Verbs with long *-i* as in *abide* with a general agreement in the other parts :

(1). abide	abode	abode	write	wrote	written
drive	drove	driven	(2). bind	bound	bound
ride	rode	ridden	find	found	found
(a-)rise	rose	risen	fight	fought	fought
shine	shone	shone	grind	ground	ground
shrive	shrove	shriven	wind	wound	wound
smite	smote	smitten	(3). bite	bit	bitten
stride	strode	stridden	chide	chid	chidden
strive	strove	striven	hide	hid	hidden
thrive	throve	thriven	slide	slid	slidden

Climb, which is now New, once belonged here; it has an archaic past *clomb*, still used in poetry. *Bind* has the form *bounden*, which is now used as an adjective. *Shine*, *shrive*, and *thrive* are sometimes conjugated according to the New.

(3). *cleave*,
clove, *cloven*;
bear, *bore*,
borne;

get, *got*, *got*.

180. Verbs with regularly long *o* as in *clove* (sometimes *o* as in *got* [for *gat*], by shortening) in the past and p.p., and with various vowels in the present.

(1). cleave	clove	cloven	swear	swore	sworn
freeze	froze	frozen	wear	wore	worn
heave	hove	hoven	(3). break	broke	broken
reeve	rove	rove	stave	stove	stoven
shear	shore	shorn	(a-)wake	woke	wcke
steal	stole	stolen	(4). get	got	{ got
speak	spoke	spoken			{ gotten
weave	wove	woven	seethe	sod	sodden
choose	chose	chosen	shoot	shot	shot
(2). bear	bore	borne	tread	trod	trodden
tear,	tore	torn			

Break, *bear*, *speak*, *swear*, *wear*, *tear* and *get* had Old pasts with the vowel *a*, now out of use, as *brake*, *bare*, etc. *Bear* has two forms of the participle, *borne* (act. and pass.), "carried or endured," and *born* (pass.), "brought forth";

originally, however, without this difference of meaning. *Cleave*, "split," is also of the New Conjugation (170 [2]): *heave* and *shear* are usually of the New. *Shear* has an Old participle *shorn*, now generally used as an adjective. *Gotten*, p.p. of *get*, is rarely used. *Shotten* is an Old p.p. of *shoot*. *Seethe* is of rare use and generally follows the New Conjugation. *Freeze* has still occasionally in poetry, as p.p.'s *frore* and less frequently *froren*, relics of its older form, in which *r* took the place of *s*. *Awake* and *wake* are also of the New. *Help*, now New, has an archaic past *holp*, and p.p. *holpen*.

Quoth, which belongs here (first and third person singular past), is a relic of a verb formerly much used. It is now nearly obsolete, and means both "says" and "said," always preceding its subject. The compound *bequeath* is wholly New.

181. Two sub-classes of verbs with the same vowel-sound in the past but with varying presents and participles :

(4). *blow*,
blew, *blown*;
shake, *shook*,
shaken.

(1). blow	blew	blown	throw	threw	thrown
crow	crew	crowed	slay	slew	slain
draw	drew	drawn	(2). forsake	forsook	forsaken
fly	flew	flown	shake	shook	shaken
grow	grew	grown	stand	stood	stood
know	knew	known	take	took	taken

Crow is also of the New conjugation.

182. The remaining verbs of the Old conjugation; the first two sub-classes having regular pasts with varying present and participles, and the third consisting of verbs which are invariable in their vowels :

(5). *bid*, *bade*,
bidden;
fall, *fell*,
fallen;
bid, *bid*, *bid*.

(1). (for-)bid	bade	bidden	(2). fall	fell	fallen
come	came	come	(be-)hold	held	held
eat	ate	eaten	(3). beat	beat	beaten
give	gave	given	bid	bid	bid
lie	lay	lain	burst	burst	burst
sit	sat	sat	let (allow)	let	let
see	saw	seen			

Bid in (1), "to command" or "invite," and *bid* in (3), "to offer," are from different O.E. verbs and have been much confused in their development.

Sometimes in Modern literary English, especially in the earlier writers, *eat* (pr. *ět*) is used as past and p.p. of *eat*. Sometimes in colloquial, and generally in vulgar, English, this form is also found, especially for the past.

Holden and *beholden* are archaic p. participles.

The archaic verb *let*, "hinder," was originally a weak verb. *Spit*, now invariable (172), had an earlier past, *spat*, associating it with the verb in (1) above.

PARTICIPLES IN *-EN*.New forms in *-en*.

183. The following participial forms in *-en* belong to New verbs which have the regular forms also :

(en-)graven	molten	sawn	sown
holpen (arch.)	mown	(mis-)shapen	sewn
hewn	riven	shaven	swollen
laden	rotten	shown	washen (arch.)
			waxen (arch.)

The older spelling of *show* was *shew* (O.E. *sceawian*, M.E. *schewen*). *Sew* (O.E. *siwian*) means "to unite with needle and thread"; and *sow* (O.E. *sáwan*), "to scatter."

Adjective forms:

When a double form of the participle is in use, one with *-en*, and the other without it, owing to analogy and the tendency to specialize the uses of our words, the form in *-en* is apt to be preferred for the adjective use. And there are a number of words in *-en*, now used as adjectives only; for the verbs of which they were once the participles, now form their participles in another way.

(1). Of the Old.

The following are from verbs of the Old conjugation:

bounden, drunken, shrunken, sunken, stricken, shorn ;

(2). Of the New.

and the following are from verbs of the New:

graven, molten, rotten, (mis)-shapen.

UNCLASSIFIABLE VERBS.

Conjugation of *be*.

184. We have now to note a few unclassifiable verbs :

Be is made up of parts coming from several different roots, and is inflected here in full:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

be was been

I.—INFLECTED FORMS.

INDICATIVE.		<i>Present.</i>	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
1.	am	are	be	be
2.	(art)	are	be (beest)	be
3.	is	are	be	be
		<i>Past.</i>		
1.	was	were	were	were
2.	(wast, wert)	were	wert (were)	were
3.	was	were	were	were

IMPERATIVE.

be

II.—DERIVED FORMS.

INFINITIVES.

be, to be

GERUND.

being

PARTICIPLES.

being, been.

Be differs from all other verbs in having a special form for its three persons plural, different from any of those of its singular; and in having a present and a past subjunctive different from the indicative. *Be*, different from all other verbs.

The form *be* was used (and still is in dialectical English, as well as in poetry and the higher style) as an indicative singular also until the seventeenth century, when the present differentiation set in: thus, in the authorized version of the Bible,

They *be* blind leaders of the blind.

Were, not *wast*, was originally the sec. per. sing., and we find this form of the person in poetry, where also is found *wert*, a form made about the sixteenth century on the analogy of *shalt* and *wilt*. *Wast* did not appear until the Middle English period, when the participle *been* was also formed on the analogy of the Old conjugation.

Go has for past *went*, and for p.p. *gone*. *Do* has *did* and *done*; the past *did* [O.E. *dyde*] is supposed to be a reduplicated form (162). *Went* is properly the past of *wend* (as *sent* is of *send*), which, now, as a separate verb, has *wended* (169). *go* and *do*.

The archaic and poetic form *hight*, "called" or "was called," is a peculiar survival from the Teutonic, with a passive meaning: thus, for example, in Surrey,

Bright was her hue, and Geraldine she *hight*.

Wit, with its present *wot* and past *wist* (it has no participles), is now nearly out of use. The infinitive *to wit*, "namely," belongs to legal phraseology. *Wist* affords a curious example of the effect of analogy. The O.E. *gewiss*, "certain," became *ywis* and *iwis*, "certainly"; and in the sixteenth century *iwis* was often written *Iwis*, a form which gave rise to the notion that *I* was the pronoun, and *wis* a verb, the assumed present of *wist*. *I wis* is still found in poetry, and, in Browning, we find even "Howe'er you *wis*." *wit*.

wis.

Wont, "accustomed," the O.E. p.p. *wun-od*, was formerly an invariable verb with the double p.p. *wonted*, formed by analogy, and now an adjective. *wont*.

Worth, "become" (O.E. *weorthan*) is found only in poetry: thus, *worth*.

Woe *worth* the day.

Verbs like *wit*, of which some of the parts are wanting, and verbs like *be*, which supply some from other roots, are often called *defective*. Defective verbs: definition.

185. A small class of irregular verbs are used chiefly with infinitives of other verbs, and have neither infinitives nor participles of their own. They are

can, may, shall, will ; must, ought.

Can, may, shall, will, originally Old pasts;

The first four, though now valued as presents only, were originally pasts of the Old conjugation (as is also *wit*); and hence, like other pasts, they have the third person singular (as well as the plural persons) like the first. Thus, for example,

1. can	can
2. (canst)	can
3. can	can

May, in the second person singular, has the regular form *mayest* (which is also used as a subjunctive in a wish); *shall* and *will* have *shalt* and *wilt* (like *art* and *wert*); but, when strongly notional, *will* has *willest* and *wills* in the second and third persons.

Have become presents with New pasts;

Having become present in signification, these four verbs developed pasts made according to the New conjugation but irregular, namely,

could, might, should, would.

These forms are inflected regularly, taking *-est* or *-st* in the second person singular. In older English, they were often uninflected when used in sentences expressing a condition; and some grammarians hold that this is now proper. The *l* in *could* was inserted in writing (by analogy with *should* and *would*) in *couthe*, the M. E. past (our *un-couth*, in Milton, means "unknown," and is <un- and the O. E. p.p. [*ge-*]*cuth*).

The form *won't* is the contraction of the Old present *wol*, or *wole*, with *not*.

Had originally notional meanings.

Originally, *can* (O. E. *cunnan*, whence *cunning* and [*to*] *con*) meant "to know"; *may* (O. E. *magan*, "to have physical strength," its participle giving our *main* in "main strength"); *shall* (O. E. *sculan*), "to owe" or "to be under obligation"; and *will* (O. E. *willan*), "to will" or "to choose"; so that all these verbs once had strong notional meanings.

Must and *ought*, originally New pasts, now chiefly presents.

Must and *ought* were originally pasts of the New conjugation (*ought* from the same root as *owe*), though now used chiefly as presents; they have no corresponding pasts. *Ought* forms *oughtest* in the second person singular; *must* is invariable; we say both "thou *must*" and "he *must*." The Old present of *must*, namely, *mote*, is now limited to the archaic "so *mote* it be," or to imitation of the old style.

For the past of *must* we now use *was obliged*, in which sense *must* was used in early Modern English. *Must* now refers to the present: thus "He *must* have been there" really means "It *must* now be the case that he was there." In Middle English the present forms of *ought* were in use, being gradually superseded by the past. The modern *owe* had at first *ought* as a past; thus, in Shakespeare, we find

He said you *ought* (that is, *owed*) him a thousand pound.

After a time, *owe* developed the New past *owed*, and *ought* was confined to its present meaning. *Ought* and *must* are, however, still used as pasts when we report the words of a speaker: thus,

He told me that I *ought* to (or *must*) do it.

To the preceding verbs which are now presents, but were originally pasts, we must add *dare*, which, in the sense of "challenge" is a regular New verb. But, in the sense of "have courage," *durst* is generally its past, when negative; and *dare*, its third pers. sing., when negative or followed by the root-infinitive. Examples are

He *dares* me to fight; but he *dare* not fight, *dare* he?

He *dares* to go; He *durst* (or *dared*, or *dare*) not go.

186. The irregular verbs *be*, *can*, *could*, *do*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would* have, all of them, notional meanings in present English. *Be*, we have already seen (38), has also a relational meaning, and we shall consider later the relational meanings of *do*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would*.

Dare, originally past, now present.

Verbs with both notional and relational meanings.

DERIVED FORMS.

187. Certain derived forms, made from nearly every verb in the language, are used in such ways that they have always been considered with the verb although they are not really verbs, as they make no assertion.

Why taken with verbs.

THE INFINITIVE.

To say "He gives a book," or "He goes," is to declare that some one is the doer of a certain action on a certain object, or is simply the doer of an action, at the present time; the action itself in these sentences is expressed by *giving* or *to give*, or *going* or *to go*; which may then, like any other nouns expressing an action, be the subject or the object of a verb: thus,

To give is better than *to receive*; *Giving* is better than *receiving*;

He liked *to go*; He liked *going*; I saw him *go*.

Nature and definition.

The forms *to give, giving, to go, going, go*, thus used, are called *infinitives*. The term means "unlimited" or "indefinite"; the general idea of action or state is not limited, as in the real verb forms, to a particular subject and consequently these forms possess neither number nor person. The infinitive is, thus, a species of verbal noun; it expresses in the noun-form that which the verb asserts (33).

Three forms:

(1). Root-infinitive.

188. The simple infinitive has three forms:

(1). One is the same as the stem, or root-word, of the verbal form; as *go, give*. It is accordingly called the *root-infinitive* (106).

(2). Gerundial infinitive.

(2). The form with *to* is distinguished as the *gerundial* infinitive in reference to its representing in some of its uses, the dative case of the O.E. infinitive (166), which case is called *gerundial* on account of the resemblance of some of its uses to those of the Latin gerund.

Three functions:
Noun, adjective, adverb.

The *to* of this so-called gerundial infinitive has not always the same value. Sometimes it is a mere sign without any meaning, as in "He likes *to go*," "*To give* is pleasant;" but at other times the *to* is a real preposition, as in "A house *to let*," "Sweet *to hear*," where *to go* and *to hear* are prepositional phrases. According to its use it is classified as the *noun* (as in "He likes *to go*"), the *adjective* (as in "A house *to let*"), or the *adverb* (as in "sweet *to hear*") gerundial infinitive. In the noun use the *to* has, of course, no meaning, and the infinitive so used is called gerundial only on account of its form; for many such infinitives have been formed by analogy, and were not originally datives. The *to* in the adjective and adverb uses, on the other hand, has a prepositional value, whether it represents an O.E. form or is due to analogy.

(3). Gerund.

(3). The third form ends in *-ing*, as *giving, going*. Partly to distinguish it from the others, and partly because it is believed to be different in origin, the form is known as the *gerund* (*gerund* means "carrying on"), the reference being to the continuous action or state which the Latin gerund was regarded as expressing.

These three forms, with the phrases that belong to them, have in part the same uses and in part different uses, being in some cases interchangeable, and in some cases, not. These uses, and the rules as to the presence or absence of *to*, will be taken up fully hereafter.

Uses of infinitives partly the same, partly different.

189. In Old English, the infinitive ended in *-an* (166), which became *-en*, then *-e*. This *-e* finally disappeared, or, if retained, it was not sounded. Its dative case was expressed by the suffix *-e* with the prep. *to*. When this *-e* disappeared, the preposition became the sign of the infinitive; and so lost its meaning in some constructions and, by analogy, was introduced in others.

Origin of; (1) the root and gerundial infinitive;

The modern verbal suffix, *-ing*, represents three O.E. suffixes. (1) The O.E. *-ung* of nouns derived from verbs, (2) *-ende*, or *-inde*, the ending of one of the participles: and (3) sometimes the dative infin. *-enne* (166). There is, however, strong ground for believing that our infinitive ending *-ing* represents the noun suffix *-ung*, not the infinitive or part. suffix, although the modern form is the equivalent of the infinitive in function. One of the reasons for this opinion is that, when we trace back these forms in *-ing*, we find that the preposition *of* was once used after them, and that they acquired their present function by its omission.

(2). The gerund.

THE PARTICIPLE.

190. The person who gives or who goes, is described as a *giving* or a *going* person; and what he gives, as a *given* thing; and we speak of "joys *gone* forever." Here *giving*, *going*, *given*, and *gone*, modify nouns while they express what the verbs *go* and *give* predicate in corresponding assertive sentences. *Giving*, *going*, *given*, and *gone* are called *participles*. The term means "participating," "sharing"; such words, while adjectives, sharing also the nature of verbs. The participle is thus a species of verbal adjective; it expresses in the adjective form that which the verb asserts (33).

Nature and definition.

191. There are two simple participles:

Two forms:

(1). One ends in *-ing*, as *giving*, *going*. This is called the *imperfect* participle, as it expresses an incomplete action or state of that which is represented by the noun it modifies.

(1). Imperfect.

(2). Perfect.

(2). The other has a variety of endings *-d*, or *-t*, or *-en*, or *-n*, or *-ne*, or none at all, as *loved*, *crept*, *broken*, *torn*, *gone*, or *cut*. It is called the *perfect* participle, as it expresses a completed action or state of that which its noun represents. It is also called the *passive* participle, as, when formed from transitive verbs, it denotes state as the result of undergoing or enduring the action expressed by the active form of the verb (120).

O.E. forms of the participle.

192. The O.E. imperf. part. in both conjugations (166) ended in *-ende*, which became *-ing*. Even in Spencer and Ben Jonson we find *-and*: thus, "pleasand things."

The Old p. part. (166) ended in *-en*, and the New in the tongue-stop suffix *-t* or *-d*, *-t* being the original Arian suffix.

The O.E. prefix *ge-* was added at first to several parts of speech, but later to the p. part. only, and in a modified form (166): thus, *gelufod*, "loved"; *ygo*, "gone." Occasionally, since the sixteenth century, it has appeared in poetry or burlesque; thus, in Milton, "Under a star-ypointing pyramid." It is still dialectical, as, in Dorset, "Have ye *a-vound* ('found') the book?"

Construc-
tions:(1). From the
verb.

193. Both the participle and the infinitive may have the same modifiers as the verbs from which they come, and they may be followed by objects: thus,

To give (or *giving*) him my friendship willingly;
John found me *giving* him my friendship willingly;
My friendship was *given* willingly.

(2). From the
noun and
from the
adjective.

And as respectively they partake of the nature of the noun and the adjective, they have many of their constructions. The following are some of the simplest; the others will be taken up later:

Infinitives:

To hear is *to obey*; *Seeing* is *believing* (116 and 119);
He likes *to journey* (or *journeying*); We used *to live here* (124);
He was about *to depart* (or *departing*);
He is tired of *wasting* his time (151).

Participles:

He is *beaten*; He is *beating* (119); He came *running* (122);
He set us all *laughing*; I saw him *going* (132);
The *dying* man gave it to me (134);
Dying, she gave it to me (136).

Differ from
noun, adject-
ive, and verb.

But owing to their double nature they have certain peculiarities of form and nature:

(1). The infinitive is without the inflections of the noun; the participle is an adjective, without the capability of comparison which many adjectives possess. Neither the infinitive nor the participle possesses the inflections of the verb or its power of predication; each expresses merely the condition of that which the verb predicates; the participle expresses it as incomplete (*giving, going*), or as complete (*given, gone*); and the infinitive expresses it as one whole, without reference to the incompleteness or the completeness, and so, indefinitely.

(2). Both the infinitive and the participle imply time, but the idea of *definite* time, which seems to belong to them in a sentence, is only infused into them by the main verb: thus, in

Time expressed,
indefinite

I like (or liked, or shall like) *to give* (or *giving*),
the condition of the act expressed by the infinitives *to give* or *giving*, is present, or past, or future, according as the main verb is present, or past or future. So, too, with *go* in

I see (or saw, or shall see) him *go*;
and with the participles *falling* or *fallen*, in

I see (or saw, or shall see) him *falling* (or *fallen*).

USES OF FORMS IN -ING.

194. As forms in *-ing* may discharge different functions, they must be carefully distinguished. The following examples illustrate the differences:

Examples of
the same
words in *-ng*
with different
functions.

(1). Participles:

I saw my father *amusing* the boy to-day;
There goes the horse *trotting* full speed down the street.

(2). Gerunds:

We were surprised at John's *amusing* the child so faithfully;
I heard of the horse's *trotting* full speed down the street.

(3). Adjectives:

This book is a most *amusing* one;
I have several *trotting* horses in my stable.

(4). Nouns:

The proper *amusing* of a child is an art in itself;
The *trotting* of the horse can be plainly heard;
The proper *crossing* of the street is no easy matter:
The street *crossing* is in a muddy condition.

TENSE AND MOOD.

SIMPLE FORMS.

TENSE.

Tense and
Mood, FORMS
showing
differences
of verbal
meaning.

195. As we have seen (96 and 98), different forms of the verb are used to show differences in the number and person of the subject. Different forms of the verb are also used to show real differences of meaning belonging to the verbs themselves.

Tense.

When we assert an action or a state, we must represent this action or state as existing in some time. Tense is one of our ways of doing so (99).

Special
meanings:

Present.

I love or *I strike*, for instance, is used especially of what is going on now, at the present moment. This form is, therefore, said to be of the *present* tense; while *I loved* or *I struck* is used of something gone by or past, and is, therefore, called the *past* tense. These two are the only simple tenses; that is, those distinguished by inflection.

Past.

The special function of the present tense form is to express what is going on at the present moment: thus,

There *goes* my hat; Now *fades* the glimmering landscape
on the sight.

Other mean-
ings of the
present tense.

But the present tense-form is generally used to express other meanings; for the name which a tense-form has been given from its special use is applied to it in all its uses. It expresses:

- (1). A continued or habitual action or state: thus,

The sun *rises* in the east, and *sets* in the west;
The mountains *look* upon Marathon,
And Marathon *looks* on the sea.

- (2). The possession of some faculty: thus,

My wife *sings*, *plays*, and *dances* well.

- (3). A universal truth: thus,

Love *is* strong as death; jealousy *is* cruel as the grave.

(4). The past in animated narrative (the *historic* present): thus,

Towards noon Elector Thuriot *gains* admittance; finds
De Lauray indisposed for surrender. Thuriot
mounts with him to the battlements, etc.

(5). The future, when the event is fixed and near at hand, or vividly anticipated: thus,

The boys *come* back next Saturday week.

Or when the reference is clear from the context: thus,

. . . . When I *am* forgotten, as I shall be,
And *sleep* in dull, cold marble, where, etc.

196. The past tense-form is used to express also, as belonging to past time:

Other meanings of the past tense.

(1). An act or state going on during some period: thus,

One *watched* while the other *broke* the lock.

(2). An habitual action or state (see [1] above): thus,

After his return he *borrowed* without scruple, and *was*
almost constantly in debt.

(3). The possession of some faculty (see [2] above): thus,

He *wrote* better than any of those he employed.

MOOD.

197. As we have already seen (100), besides a difference in time, verbs sometimes show by a difference of form, called *mood*, the mode in which the speaker views what the verb expresses; that is, the way in which the action or state is connected in our minds with the thing for which the subject stands.

Mood.

The assertion may be a simple statement of what the speaker treats as fact, whether it actually is a fact or not: thus in

Indicative Mood

John *went*; They *can* go; He *says* that I *was* there;
I *must* be there; John *should* go; It *may* rain to-morrow;

the speaker treats as facts John's having gone, their being able to go, his saying that I was there, and my having been there, the necessity for my being there, the obligation on John to go, and the possibility of

its raining to-morrow; although these may not really be facts. And in

The Americans *own* Canada; The sun *moves* round the earth; the speaker treats as facts the Americans' owning Canada, and the sun's moving round the earth, although, as everyone knows, neither is a fact.

In the above sentences, *went*, *can*, *says*, *was*, *must*, *should*, *own*, and *moves* are said to be in the *indicative* mood; that is, the mood of simple assertion.

Subjunctive
Mood.

198. But the assertion may be a statement of what the speaker treats as a mental conception; that is, as something merely thought of, not as actually existing independently of his thoughts: thus, in

If I *be*; Though I *go*; Supposing he *were* here; God *be* with us;
Lest she *forget* her duty;

the speaker treats my being, my going, his being here, God's being with us, and her forgetting her duty, as mere thoughts, not as facts, although they may be facts in the future or even when he thinks of them. In the above expressions, *be*, *go*, *were*, and *forget* are said to be in the *subjunctive* mood; or, as it is sometimes called, the *thought* mood, to distinguish it from the indicative, or *fact* mood.

Indicative,
without
variety.
Subjunctive,
variously
applied:

199. Since, therefore, by the indicative, we assert what we treat as fact, its application has no variety. The subjunctive, however, admits of various applications; for what is merely thought of may be shaped by our minds in various ways: thus,

(1). Desire.

(1). A desire. Examples are

God *be* with us! Heaven *rest* her soul.

Here God's being with us and Heaven's resting her soul are merely thought of as desirable: they are not treated as actual facts.

To show the value of the subjunctive mood in such sentences, we may express their meanings thus:

God's being with us (treated, not as a fact, but as something
merely thought of, and, therefore, as an *uncertainty*
or *possibility*) is a thing I desire;
Heaven's resting her soul (treated in the same way)
is a thing I desire.

(2). The purport of a desire. Examples are

(2). Purport of desire.

My wish is that you *be* there ;
 The decision was that he *leave* the country ;
 My proposal is that he *visit* Toronto ;
 I suggest that he *go* after dinner ;
 Mr. B. asked that the meeting *be* adjourned.

Here, as above, the meanings may be expressed thus :

Your being there (treated as a *possibility*) is my wish ;
 His leaving the country (something *merely thought of*,
 not yet a fact) was the decision ; etc.

(3). A purpose. Examples are

(3). Purpose.

Take care that all *be* present ; Mark him well lest (that not)
 he *deceive* thee ;

Here, also, the meaning may be expressed thus :

All being present (treated as a *possibility*) is the purpose
 of the command to take care ;
 His not deceiving thee (treated as a *possibility*) is the
 purpose of the command to mark him well.

(4). A concession. Examples are

(4). Con-
cession.

Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home ;
 Even if it *be* true, I cannot believe him.

Here, again, the meanings of these statements may
 be expressed thus :

Its being ever so humble (treated as a *supposed case*
granted) does not prevent there being no place like home ;
 Even its being true (also treated as a *supposed case*
granted) does not enable me to believe him.

(5). A condition. Examples are

(5). Con-
dition ;

If to-morrow *be* fair, we will start early ;
 If to-day *were* fair, we could start now.

Here we have the two commonest kinds of sentences
 expressing a condition, that employ the subjunctive.
 The meanings, as before, may be expressed thus :

Two
commonest
kinds of
condition.

To-morrow's being fair (treated as a *possibility*) is the
 condition on which depends our future going ;
 To-day's being fair (treated as something not real,
 but *merely thought of*) is the condition on
 which depends our ability to start now.

In the first of these sentences, the condition has not
 yet been tested by experience and may, of course, be

fulfilled; but, in the second, the condition is represented as merely thought of, and it is implied that it is contrary to fact.

Less common
uses of the
Subjunctive.

200. Uses of the subjunctive, not now found in ordinary prose, are seen in the sentences:

He that smiteth a man so that he *die*, shall surely
be put to death;
I'll fight till from my bones my flesh *be* hacked;
Is it fit this soldier *keep* his vow?
She'll not tell me if she *love* me;
He feels if the axe *be* sharp;
I know not whether it *be* true or not;
The tree will wither before it *fall*;
It is better he *die*.

Subjunctive,
dependent in
thought; not
necessarily in
a subordinate
clause.

201. In all the examples of the subjunctive in the foregoing paragraphs, it is evidently dependent in thought (the clause in which it is used is not, of necessity, subordinate); that is, the subjunctive does not make an out-and-out assertion; for, what is stated of any thing in thought only can have no meaning except in connection with some other thought, which may either be expressed or implied. This is shown by the meanings assigned the sentences or clauses in which the subjunctive is used in the preceding examples.

Subjunctive
forms still
found in
prose and
poetry;

202. The simple subjunctive (that is, the subjunctive shown in one verb *be* by inflection and the use of a different word [110 and 184], or by absence of the indicative inflection for person and number) is still found in good prose and still more in poetry; for it adds to the grace and refinement of language; but, owing to our desire to drop unnecessary distinctions, the tendency at present is to discard it in speaking and in less formal composition. Indeed, except in a wish, a concession, or a condition contrary to the fact, or in the emphatic expression of a possibility, the indicative is used instead, even in literary English, or, as we shall see later, its place is taken by verb-phrases. And, in spoken English, in particular, hardly any special simple subjunctive forms are now used except *were* to express a desire or its purport,

But seldom in
ordinary use.

Its place
taken by
verb-phrases
and the
indicative.

or a condition contrary to the fact. Thus, for example, in each of the sentences :

See that all *are* present; I will see that he *does* so;
 He will stay till he *sees* me; I asked him if he *was* there;
 I do not know whether it *is* so;
 When he *comes*, I will speak to him;
 No matter how he *acts*, I will trust him;
 If to-morrow *is* fair, I will start early;

the subordinate clauses really express, not what is fact, but what is merely thought of; but it is not so treated or so expressed. We, consequently, use the indicative mood in each case, and either the context shows the possibility or it is unnecessary to show it.

203. In some cases, however, the indicative is used to show a special meaning: thus in

Indicative
used in con-
trast with
subjunctive
in some cases.

Though he *slays* me, yet will I trust in him;
 If he *was* guilty, he deserved punishment;

the meanings may be expressed thus :

His slaying me (an *actual fact*, and so treated) will
 not prevent my trusting in him.
 His being guilty (admitted to be a *fact*, or for argument's
 sake, received as one) is the condition on which, etc.;

whereas, if, in the above sentences, we substituted

Though he *slay* me, If he *were* guilty;

his slaying me and his being guilty would both be treated as uncertainties, or mere conceptions.

In "If he was guilty, he deserved punishment," we have the third kind of conditional sentences; that in which an admitted fact is put before the mind in the form of a condition.

Third kind of
condition.

204. Although, in certain cases, we have discarded the subjunctive forms, it must not be supposed that, in these cases, we view as conceptions what the verbs express. We are now averse to the subtle distinctions, once shown by special subjunctive forms, and we often treat as fact what was formerly treated as a mental conception. A change has, therefore, taken place not merely in the forms of some verbs, but in the way we view the notions they express. This is the natural tendency of the analytical language of a practical people. When we do not use phrases, we trust to the context to make our meaning clear.

Subtle dis-
tinctions of
the subjunc-
tive now
seldom made.

Indicative
and
subjunctive
forms, often
the same.

But, as all the forms of the indicative and the subjunctive are the same, except in a very few cases, the subjunctive may sometimes be mistaken for the indicative, and we can determine the mood only from the context. Reference to the paradigms of the O.E. verbs in par. 166 shows us that by the destruction of the inflections for person and number, nearly all the forms of the two moods have become unified; so that, when we use for the subjunctive the same forms as those of the indicative, it would be wrong to suppose that we are using indicative for subjunctive forms.

Imperative
Mood.

205. The *imperative* is the mood of command, entreaty, or request: thus,

Be off; Help us in all our undertakings; Call on us;

Expresses
possibility.
Hence subj.
sometimes
substituted.

From its nature, the act or state expressed by the imperative is only a possibility. Hence, the subjunctive, which also deals with possibilities, shades into the imperative (52) and is used to express a desire, often, as we have seen (199), in the third person, and sometimes in poetry and the more solemn style in the first: for *we* is here really equivalent to "*I and you*," and the imperative refers to the *you*: thus, for example,

"Now *tread* we a measure" said young Lochinvar;
Part we in friendship from your land,
And, noble earl, receive my hand.

Optative
subjunctive.

The forms in the first and third persons are sometimes described as *optative* subjunctives; that is, subjunctives used in the expression of a wish (*optative* means "expressing a wish").

ACTIVE PHRASE-FORMS.

EMPHATIC PHRASES.

206. There are other ways of expressing nearly the same differences of time as those expressed by the present and the past tense. Instead, for example, of "*I give*" and "*I gave*," we may say "*I do give*" and "*I did give*." The difference between the expressions is usually that "*I do*, or *did*, *give*" is a more *emphatic*, or positive, assertion than "*I give* or

gave." But, in asking a question and in negation, it has come to be usual in our language to say, without intending emphasis (49):

Interrogative and Negative forms, not emphatic.

Do I give? Did I give? instead of Give I? Gave I?

I do not give, I did not give, instead of I give not, I gave not.

Such forms as "I give not" and "I gave not," and even "I not doubt" and "It not appears to me," were in use in older English; and we still find, in poetry and the older style such forms as "I give not" and "I gave not," and the use of *do* and *did* in assertive sentences when no emphasis was intended. Examples are

Old forms.

Revolt our subjects? The serpent beguiled me and I did eat.

Gives not the hawthorn bush a sweeter shade?

In Middle English *do* meant "to cause" or "to make"; and, although in such constructions as "I do give," *do* has now lost its older notional meaning and become relational, it is still the real verb (that is, the part that is essential to the predication [17]), and *give*, the root-infinitive, is its object. We might properly enough always parse the phrase and any similar one in this manner. But the phrase is a kind of substitute for the present tense of the verb *give*, and the *do* is used with the infinitive *to help* in making this phrase. Accordingly, we treat such phrases as "I *do* give" and "I *did* give" as simple tenses, calling them the *emphatic* present and past of *give*, and *do* an *auxiliary*, or "helping," verb. The forms used in asking a question we call *interrogative*; and those in negation, *negative*. And, when thus used, the archaic forms of the second and third persons singular are *dost* and *doth*; not *doest* and *doeth*, which are notional.

Origin of Emphatic form.

Auxiliary verbs, Emphatic, Interrogative, and Negative forms.

PROGRESSIVE PHRASES.

207. We form yet another kind of present and past, as in "I *am giving*" and "I *was giving*," by using the present and the past of *be* as auxiliaries, and putting along with them the imperfect participle *giving*. Here the participle has the value of a predicate

Participle in Progressive form, a pred. adjective

adjective, modifying the subject of the auxiliary verb; and, as in "I *do* give," it is convenient to treat these phrases as if they were simple tenses. And, because in them the action or state is thought of more distinctly as *continuing*, or being in *progress*, we call them the *continuous*, or *progressive*, present and past.

FUTURE PHRASES.

Simple forms of verb for present and past only.

208. Our simple verbal forms have a distinction of tense only for the difference of time present and time past. If we wish to speak of anything to be done in the *future*, we use as auxiliaries the present tenses of the irregular verbs *shall* and *will*, putting along with them the infinitive of the verb expressing action or state; thus, "I *shall* give," "He *will* go." This verb-phrase is, therefore, called a *future* tense. And, in these phrases (as in "I do give"), the infinitive is the object of the auxiliary considered as an independent verb.

Shall and *will* originally notional.

209. *Shall* meant originally (as still sometimes) "to be under an obligation," and *will* meant "to be resolved to" (185). These notional meanings still determine the uses of *shall* and *will* in our modern future phrases; but their meanings have become weakened, and *shall* and *will* are now used to express not only futurity combined with the notions of compulsion and choice respectively, but simple futurity. We have, therefore, two sets of verb-phrases according as the speaker is represented as causing or not causing the act or state:

Weakened, they are future auxiliaries, forming two sets of phrases.

I. *Shall* and *will* in assertive sentences:
(1). When the speaker does not cause the act or state.

210. We will first consider the uses of *shall* and *will* in assertive sentences:

(1). When the speaker is not represented as causing the action or state, we say, for example,

1. I *shall* go,
2. You *will* go,
3. He *will* go;

because in "I *shall* go," the speaker is the person the subject of the verb stands for, and the going is not the result of his will; and in "You *will* go," or "He *will* go," the speaker and the person the subject

stands for are different, and the going is the result of the will of the latter. But as a mere wish on the part of the speaker does not suggest futurity so unmistakably as his own statement of the compulsion under which he is placed, "I shall go," which originally meant "I am obliged to go," has come to mean simply, "I am about to go." So, too, when we say, "You (or he) will go," we refer to futurity only; for, as we can have no certain knowledge of the wishes of others, the expression hardly suggests the idea of will at all.

Hence, to express *simple* futurity we use *shall* for the first person and *will* for the second and third. Such verb-phrases are, therefore, *simple* futures.

Rule for
Simple
futurity

(2). When the speaker is represented as causing the act or state, we say, for example

(2). When
the speaker
causes the
act or state.

1. I *will* go,
2. You *shall* go,
3. He *shall* go;

because in "I will go," the speaker is the person the subject stands for, and the going is the result of his will; and in "You shall go" and "He shall go," the going is caused by the speaker.

Hence, to express *assent* or *promise* on the part of the speaker, we use *will* for the first person and *shall* for the second and third. Such verb-phrases are called futures of *assent* or *promise*. In these phrases, more of the original notional meaning of the auxiliaries is retained than in the simple future (35). So, too, to express a *command* or *prophecy* in the second and third persons we use *shall*. Such phrases are called futures of *command* and *prophecy*; thus,

Rule for
futures of
Assent,
Promise,
Command,
and
Prophecy.

Thou *shalt* not steal; No one *shall* leave the room;
He *shall* be blessed in all that belongs to him;

211. Some peculiar uses of *will* and *shall* in assertive sentences need to be noticed:

(1). Although the verb should regularly be first person (for, in syntax, the first person is more important than the second, and the second than the third), *will* is used instead of *shall* to express simple futurity, with such phrase subjects as *You and I*, *We two*, *We boys*, *We all*: thus,

Peculiar uses
of *shall* and
will.

You and I *will* go; We two *will* be there; We boys
will have some fun; We all *will* be punished.

Here the *you* involved in such subjects attracts the attention. When, however, we separate the parts of such phrases, we naturally follow the usual construction: thus,

We shall all be punished ; We shall both go.

(2). Both *will* and *shall*, when emphatic, are sometimes used to express strong determination. Thus, "*I will do so*" implies obstinacy; and "*I shall do it*" certainty, as if the speaker's will were controlled by a force outside of himself; and they are used in conjunction to express the strongest kind of determination—as if the speaker were asserting his determination from all points of view: thus, we have both

I will and I shall do it ; I will and shall do it.

212. *Will* is also used as follows, having different shades of meaning according to the stress upon it:

Will
(1). In the
second and
third persons.

(1). In the second and third persons, to express a softened command, willingness being courteously assumed: Examples are

You *will* kindly remain for a minute or so ;
The teachers *will* see that no one leaves the room.

And in "*You will do it,*" where the *will* is emphatic the meaning is that the speaker will see that it is your will to do it.

(2). In the
third person.

(2). In the third person, to express

(a). A habit, the notion of inclination in *will* being subordinated and the attention being directed to the habit to which the inclination leads: thus,

He *will* spend hours together in their company ;
and, by a sort of personification, we say

Accidents *will* happen.

(b). A persistent course of conduct on the part of the person represented by the subject, the notion of inclination being also prominent: thus,

He *will* go there in spite of my warnings.

(c). A general statement expressing a fact which is really the predicted result of an experiment: thus,

Any port *will* answer in a storm (that is, if you make the trial).

(d). A conclusion to which the mind has been coming as an inference from facts: thus,

This *will* be his reason, no doubt.

213. The principles governing the use of *shall* and *will* in future verb-phrases in interrogative sentences are the same as in assertive sentences. Thus we say, for example,

Shall I go? *Shall* you (OR he) go?

when we enquire about the futurity of a going, which futurity is thought of by the speaker as dependent on an influence external to the person the subject stands for; and we say

Will you (OR he) go?

when the future going is thought of by the speaker as depending on the will of the person the subject stands for. And we do not say “*Will* I go?” because the future going here depends upon the will of the speaker, and he would not enquire about what depends on his own will.

Hence, in asking questions, in the second and third persons, we are accustomed to use *shall* or *will* according as we expect the one or the other to be used in reply, although, of course, the form we expect may not be used.

II. *Shall* and *will* in interrogative sentences.

Rule for use.

214. The same principles determine the use of *shall* and *will* in clauses subordinate to other clauses the verbs of which express an act or state at the present time or a time of which the present forms a part. Examples are:

III. *Shall* and *will* in subordinate clauses:

(1). When verb in prin. clause refers to the present, *shall* and *will*.

(1). Of simple futures,

I fear we *shall* be late; I hope you *will* succeed;

We feel sure he *will* like his position.

(2.) Of futures of assent, promise, etc.

I hereby declare that I *will*, etc.;

We are willing that you *shall* have it;

The judges have decided that he *shall* try again.

215. When, however, the verb of the principal clause expresses what is past, futurity in the subordinate clause is expressed by *should* or *would*, the pasts of *shall* and *will*: thus, for example, we say

(2). When it refers to the past alone, *should* and *would*.

I fear I *shall* fall; I feared (and I had feared) I *should* fall; for the falling which, in the first sentence, was simply future at the time of the fearing is, in the second, viewed as past from the standpoint of the speaker's

Should and
would, here
indicative.

present. *Should* and *would* in such phrases are simply pasts of *shall* and *will*, and, therefore, belong to the indicative mood. And the distinction between the uses of *should* and *would* is the same as between *shall* and *will*. Other examples are :

He prophesied that he *should* be blessed in all that belonged to him ; We were willing that you *should* have it ;
The examiners ordered that no candidate *should* be permitted to copy ; It was agreed that we *should* meet at once ;
The judges decided that the race *should* be run over again ;
I knew it *would* turn out well.

Such a verb-phrase is called a *future-past*.

PERFECT AND PAST PERFECT PHRASES.

How com-
posed.

216. By using the verb *have* as an auxiliary, in the present and past tenses, *have* and *had*, and putting with them the perfect participles *given* and *gone*, and the like, we form two other so-called tenses : namely, “I *have given*” and “I *had given*.” Both these tenses show past action, like the simple past ; but as “I *have given*” marks the act of giving especially as *completed* at present, we call it a *present perfect* tense (*perfect* here means “complete”). And, as “I *had given*” marks the act as already completed at some stated time in the past—thus, for example, “I *had given* it away before you came,”—we call it a *past perfect*, or *pluperfect*, tense.

Meaning of
Present
Perfect.

The perfect form “I *have given*” refers to both the present and the past ; for it means “I gave in the past and the giving is now completed” ; that is, it is regarded as continued in its effects up to the present. So, too, “He *has been* here for a year,” means “He was here in the past and still is here.” The perfect, therefore, expresses an act or a state that began in the past and is continued in its effects or is itself continued, up to the present. The past, on the other hand, as in “I *gave*” or “I *was* here,” expresses the act or the state as past, without any reference to the present. Sometimes, indeed, the past excludes the possibility of a reference to the present, as when we say “He *travelled* for a year in Italy,” implying that he is not now doing so.

The past perfect stands in the same relation to the past as the present perfect does to the present; thus, for example, *had given* in "I had given it before he asked" expresses the act of giving as completed (and, of course, continuing in its effects) before the past act of his asking.

Meaning of
Past Perfect.

217. Of all the verb-phrases used as compound tenses, those with *have* for their auxiliary are farthest removed from their original meaning. They began to be made from transitive verbs, followed by an object, which object was modified by the participle in the way of an objective predicate; for example,

Perfect verb-
phrases
originated in
obj. pred.
constructions.

I have my head lifted; I have the letter written.

Then such phrases, which literally expressed only the result of a past action, came to be understood as expressions for the action itself, getting the same meaning as our

I have lifted my head; I have written the letter.

And then, *have* coming to seem a mere auxiliary of past time, as *shall* and *will* are of the future, all verbs, by analogy, made their perfect tenses with it. For a long time, however, *am* and *was* continued to be used as auxiliaries for some of the intransitive verbs; and survivals of this use are to be seen in occasional phrases like

Survivals
of other
forms.

He is come; They are arrived; He was gone before you rode up.

The use of both the perfect and the pluperfect verb-phrases goes back to the earliest period of our language; but the simple past was generally used for these tenses (110), as is now often the case amongst the uneducated.

SUBJUNCTIVE PHRASES.

218. As we have already seen (202), the simple subjunctive (that is the subjunctive formed by inflection), is now almost out of use. Instead of it we use the indicative, or phrases with *may* and *might* and with *should* and *would*, the past tenses of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*. These are known as *phrasal* subjunctives. Like *shall* and *will*, *may* was originally and still generally is notional (185), expressing "permission" or "possibility." These notional meanings have, however, disappeared in a few constructions, leaving the *may* or *might* (like the *shall* and *will* in simple

Subjunctive
phrases with
may and
might, and
should and
would.

futures) purely relational. Subjunctive phrases with *should* and *would* are of the same form as the future pasts, but they serve a different purpose.

219. The verb-phrases with *may* and *might* and *should* and *would* may, indeed, often be substituted for the simple subjunctive with, of course, the same value. Thus, for example, (compare the sentences in par. 199),

Subjunctive phrases, compared with simple forms :

(1). Desire.

(1). A desire :

May God *be* with us !

FOR God *be* with us !

(2). Purport of a desire.

(2). The purport of a desire :

My wish is that you *should be* there,

FOR My wish is that you *be* there.

The judge decided that he *should leave* the country,

“ The judge decided that he *leave* the country.

(3). Purpose.

(3). A purpose :

Mark him well lest he *should deceive* thee,

“ Mark him well lest he *deceive* thee.

(4). Concession.

(4). A concession :

Should it be ever so humble, there's no place like home,

“ *Be it* ever so humble, there's no place like home.

Whate'er *may betide*, we'll turn aside,
And see the braes of Yarrow,

“ Whate'er *betide*, we'll turn aside,
And see the braes of Yarrow.

(5). Condition.

(5). A condition :

If to-morrow *should be* fair, we will start early,

“ If to-morrow *be* fair, we will start early.

Government *would be* impossible, if the system *should* (or *were* to) fail,

“ Government *were* impossible if the system failed.

So many thoughts ran to and fro

“ So many thoughts ran to and fro

That vain it *would be* her eyes to close,

“ That vain it *were* her eyes to close.

Other subjunctive phrases used like simple forms.

And all other subjunctive verb-phrases are used in the same way; that is, to assert what the speaker treats, not as actual fact but as merely thought of;

although, generally, we cannot use the simple subjunctive also. Examples are

We eat (or ate) that we *may* (or *might*) live (a purpose);
 By accepting the condition, we *should* become his accomplices;
 A wise man *would* not do so; I *should* think so, indeed;
 It seems absurd that he *should* think so;
 What have I done that you *should* be my friend no more.

In all these subjunctive verb-phrases, the auxiliary (like *do* in "I do give" [206]) is really the verb in the subjunctive mood with a purely relational meaning (for, as we have seen above, it may sometimes take the place of the inflection or its substitute in the simple subjunctive), and what follows in the verb-phrase (as, for example, *be* in "May God *be* with us") is a verb in the infinitive, the object of the *may* considered as an independent verb.

Value of each part of subjunctive phrases.

220. *May* and *might*, as subjunctive auxiliaries, are used to express a wish, a concession, and a purpose.

Should and *would* are especially used to make a conditional assertion; that is, an assertion dependent on a condition: thus, for example,

I *should* go (if I could get away);
 You (or he) *would* go (if you or he could get away);

where my, your, or his going is not now treated as an actual fact, but as contingent, or dependent, on my, your, or his being able to get away. And *should* may also be used to express the condition itself: thus, for example,

If he *should* come (you *would* see him).

In such complex sentences, the subordinate clause, which expresses the *condition*, is called the *conditional* clause; and the principal clause which asserts what *results* from, or depends or is contingent on the fulfilment of the condition, is called the *consequent* clause (*consequent* means "resulting from" or "dependent on").

Conditional and Consequent Clauses.

Sometimes, however, the condition is implied in a word or a phrase: thus, for example, in

Condition:
 (1). Concealed.

A wise man *would* not do so;

By accepting, we *should* make ourselves his accomplices;
 which are equivalent to

If a man were wise, he would not do so;
 If we accepted, we should make ourselves his accomplices.

(2). Under-
stood.

Again, the condition may be understood: thus, for example, in

I should say he is mistaken;

where we may supply the condition, "if I ventured an opinion." In such constructions, however, we do not think of a condition, and the verb-phrase has come to be used as a softened form of assertion when we feel that the indicative would be too abrupt and positive.

Other uses of
should and
would.

In such sentences, however, as

There is no need that she *should be* present;
He is afraid lest you *should fail*;

no condition is implied, but her being present and your failing are treated, not as facts, but as mere conceptions. The meanings are

Her being present (something *merely thought of*) is not needed;
Your failing (also a *mere conception*) is the cause of his fear.

And, in such sentences as

He is sorry his father *should have stayed*;
What have I done that you *should be* my friend no longer?

Mood, not
dependent on
what is im-
plied in whole
sentence.

while it is actually implied (199 [5]) that his father stayed and that you are no longer my friend, his father's having stayed and your being my friend no longer are mere mental conceptions; they are not treated as facts. Hence the mood depends on how we conceive and treat the act or state; not on what is incidentally implied in the whole sentence.

Why the
future is
indicative.

How *should*
and *would*
have their
subjunctive
meanings.

221. Future phrases are in the indicative mood, because, by them, we assert our present certainty in regard to the future (although what is future is, of course, uncertain). But, in the subjunctive verb-phrases made with *should* and *would*, the uncertainty expressed by the future is increased by using the past form; that is, by adding to the remoteness—by putting it further from us—and thus giving those auxiliaries the uncertainty and doubtfulness the subjunctive is intended to express.

Rules for use
of *should* and
would.

As another result of the origin of *should* and *would* the rules for their use are the same as those given above for *shall* and *will*. Hence *should* is used in all

the persons in the conditional clause: thus, for example,

If I (or you or he) *should do* so (I should fail);

because my, your, or his doing so is an act the possibility of which depends on an influence outside of the person the subject of *should* stands for; and *should* or *would* is used for the first person, and *would* for the second and third, in the consequent clause; thus,

(If I [or you or he] *should do* so) I *should* (or I, or you, or he *would*) feel sorry;

because my feeling sorry may be represented as due to my will or as independent of it; and, if we said

You (or he) *should* feel sorry;

should would have the notional meaning of "ought."

OTHER PERFECT AND PAST PERFECT PHRASES.

222. As with the present and past of *have*, we made, adding the perfect participle of the verb, a perfect and a pluperfect tense: thus, "I *have* (and *had*) given"; so with the future and future past indicative, and the phrasal subjunctive tenses, we form a *future perfect*, a *future perfect past*, and a *phrasal subjunctive present* (and *past*) *perfect*: thus,

I shall (or will) have given; I should (or would) have given;
I may (and might) have given.

Future perf.:
Fut. perf.
past; phrase
subjunc. perf.

IMPERATIVE PHRASES.

223. Besides the optative subjunctive (205), another mode of expression, made with a kind of imperative auxiliary, *let*, is much used in order to intimate a wish or instruction in the third person and even in the first: thus,

Let me (or us) *give*; *Let him* (her, it, or them) *give*;
Let the messenger set out at once.

Let as an
auxiliary.

This combination of *let* with an infinitive is so common that it seems to us to supply the place of the missing first and third persons of the imperative mood; and it is properly to be regarded and described as a *phrasal* imperative.

Here *let* is plainly a real imperative, and the *give* an infinitive, to which the intervening noun or pronoun stands in the relation of subject, just as in such

Its real
nature.

combinations as "*Make him go,*" "*See him give,*" or "*Cause him to give*" (132); but, in the phrasal imperative, the notional meaning of *let* has become weakened.

OTHER PROGRESSIVE AND EMPHATIC PHRASES.

Progressive
phrases.

224. We may make continuous or progressive forms for the entire series of verb-phrases, by putting in each case the corresponding tense of *be* before the imperfect participle: thus,

I have been giving; I had been giving; I shall be giving;
I may be giving; I might be giving; I should be giving;

and so on with the rest.

Phrases
formed with
do.

But the forms with *do* as auxiliary, are made only from the present and the past, and not from any of the tense-phrases (except the phrasal imperative), whether in assertion, or in question and negation. For example, we are allowed to say either

I *do have* or I *have*; *Does he have?* or *Has he?*
They *did not have* or They *had not*;

when *have* is an independent verb: but we say only

I *have given*; *Has he given?* They *had not given*;

when it is an auxiliary. And so with all the other auxiliaries except *let*.

Limitation
of use of
emphatic *do*.

An emphatic form of *be*, *will*, *shall*, or *may*, except in the emphatic phrasal imperative, (as, for example, "*Do be still,*") is not admitted, even in the independent uses of these verbs. To make such forms emphatic, we lay the stress of the voice upon them when we are speaking, or italicize them in print, underline them in writing, or arrange the context so as to show our intention.

NATURE AND RELATIONS OF THE TENSES.

225. We may now see how the different tenses are related to one another. The simple divisions of time are, of course, the present, the past, and the future; and the action or state may, in each case, be represented as (1) incomplete or going on (the progressive forms), (2) as complete (the perfect forms), or (3) without regard to its completeness or incompleteness; that is, indefinitely (the present, the past, and the future).

(1). On these bases we have for the indicative mood:

Indicative
mood.

Ordinary.	Progressive.	Perfect.
<i>Pres.</i> give	am giving	have given
<i>Past</i> gave	was giving	had given
<i>Fut.</i> shall give	shall be giving	shall have given

and, as the perfect may express an act begun in the past and continued into the present, we have also progressive forms of its present, past, and future forms. We have, besides, the special forms: the emphatic, and the future and future perfect pasts with their progressive forms.

And, of these forms, the present and the future are called *primary*, and the past, *historic* tenses.

Primary and
Historic
tenses.

(2). Owing to the nature of a command or wish, the imperative mood has but one tense.

Imperative
mood.

(3). The tenses of the subjunctive refer, not to the supposed time of the occurrence of the events, but to the time of their possibility. Accordingly, the present indicates that the possibility is treated as still existing: thus,

Subjunctive
mood.

Mine be the shame; If thou be he, say so;

the past, that the possibility is purely imaginary, without any reference to its realization (220 and 221): thus,

I would that I were dead; If I were he, I should not do so;
Is he mad that he should do so?

the present perfect, that the act or state is treated as completed at the time of the possibility: thus,

May he have done so;

and the past perfect, that it is treated as already past at the past time spoken of, and, therefore, as unreal: thus,

Hadst thou less unworthy proved, I had loved thee.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPIAL PHRASES.

226. The infinitives and the participles bear their share in the expansion of the simple forms of the verb into a scheme of verb-phrases. Thus, besides the simple infinitive, *give* or *to give*, we have the perfect infinitive, *have given* or *to have given*, and both of these have their progressive forms: *be giving* or *to be giving*; *have been giving* or *to have been giving*.

Simple
and Perfect
Infinitives.

Besides the imperfect participle, *giving*, we have the perfect active participle and its corresponding progressive, *having given* and *having been giving*; and, as elsewhere, the same forms serve the uses of the gerund also.

Imp. and
Perf. act.
part.;
Gerunds.

Pass. part.
phrases.

Finally, the perfect (passive) participle, *given*, has its progressive form, *being given*; and from it is also made a phrasal perfect (passive) participle (without progressive form), *having been given*.

THE ACTIVE CONJUGATION.

Simple forms
in capitals.
All the others,
phrase-forms.

227. All these tense and modal forms we put into one scheme below. The original and simple forms of the verb are in capitals. Only the first person singular of each tense is set down; but, from what has been said as to person and number forms, and the uses of *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would*, the other persons may be readily supplied.

STEM.
GIVE

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
GIVE GAVE GIVEN

A.

MOOD AND TENSE FORMS.

I. INDICATIVE.

	Ordinary.	Emphatic.	Progressive.
<i>Present.</i>	GIVE	do give	am giving
<i>Past.</i>	GAVE	did give	was giving
<i>Present Perfect.</i>	have given		have been giving
<i>Past Perfect.</i>	had given		had been giving
<i>Future.</i>	shall or will give		shall or will be giving
<i>Future Perfect.</i>	shall or will have given		shall or will have been giving
<i>Future Past.</i>	should or would give		should or would be giving
<i>Future Perfect Past.</i>	should or would have given		{ should or would have been giving

II. SUBJUNCTIVE.

	Ordinary.	Emphatic.	Progressive.	PHRASAL	
				Ordinary.	Progressive.
<i>Present.</i>	GIVE	do give	be giving	may give	may be giving
<i>Past.</i>	GAVE	did give	were giving	{ might, should or would give	{ might, should or would be giving
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	{ (have given arch.)	{ (have been giving, arch.)		{ may have given	{ may have been giving
<i>Past Perf.</i>	had given	{ had been giving		{ might, should or would have given	{ might, should or would have been giving

III. IMPERATIVE.

Ordinary.	Emphatic.	Ordinary.	PHRASAL		Progressive.
			Ordinary.	Emphatic.	
GIVE	do give	let (me, etc.) give	{ do let (me, etc.) give		{ let (me, etc.) be giving

B. DERIVED FORMS.

I. INFINITIVE.

Ordinary.

Progressive.

<i>Root and Gerund. Infinitives.</i>	GIVE, to give	be giving, to be giving
<i>Perf. Root and Gerund. Infinitives.</i>	{ have given, to have given	{ have been giving, to have been giving

II. GERUND.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	GIVING	
<i>Perfect.</i>	having given	having been giving

III. PARTICIPLE.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	GIVING	
<i>Perfect Active.</i>	having given	having been giving
<i>Perfect.</i>	GIVEN	

228. It is impossible to draw any absolute line between such verb-phrases as have been set forth and named above and those yet looser and less usual combinations into which words enter in sentences, in order to limit and define an action in still other ways, as regards time, and manner. Thus, one might prefer to class as presents such verb-phrases as "I am in the act of giving"; or as futures "I am going to give"; "I am about to give;" "I am on the point of giving," and to form a series of tense and modal combinations: thus,

Other combinations possible in a scheme of conjugation

I was (have been, shall be, may be, etc.) in the act of giving (or going to give);

and so on; and some grammarians do place such combinations in their schemes of the verb.

But we select, to make up a scheme of conjugation, those phrases which are on the whole the most frequent and the most regular; those in which the real verbal form has most distinctly the character of an auxiliary or helper only; and, finally, those which most nearly correspond to the moods and tenses of the verbs of the synthetic languages.

Why not introduced.

PASSIVE TENSE AND MOOD PHRASE-FORMS.

229. There is one more set of verb-phrases, corresponding to the true verbal (or, simple) forms of many other languages, yet remaining to be described.

By putting the perfect (passive) participle along with all the various forms, simple and phrasal, of the verb *be*, we make a set of verb-phrases which are called the *passive* conjugation of the verb (120).

The Passive Conjugation: Its formation.

Its value.

By using the passive, instead of the other conjugation, we are able to give greater variety to our language, to emphasize the object of the act rather than the agent, and to represent the enduring of an act without mentioning the agent.

Emphatic
form for
Phrasal Im-
perative only.

For none of the passive-tenses, except the phrasal imperative, is there an emphatic phrase made by *do*; since the auxiliary of the passive *be* never makes an emphatic tense-phrase (224), we say only "I am struck"; "Am I struck?" "I am not struck"; and so on; not "Do I be struck?" etc.

A continuous
act or state, in
the passive,
present
and past.

230. The passive verb-phrases in "The master is esteemed," "The pupils are loved," express the enduring of an act which is continuous; but in "The house is painted," "The Indian is scalped," the verb-phrases express an act completed, not continuous. To express a continuous act, in cases like the latter, the active conjugation, or some circumlocution, was at first used instead. Another method was to form a phrase out of *be* and the gerund in *-ing* governed by *in* or *on*; thus, "The house is *in*, or *on*, *building*," and from this, by the absence of stress on the preposition, or by the omission of the preposition, came "The house is *a-building*" and "The house is *building*."

But, as the form of the latter phrase is the same as that of the active progressive, it was found to be unsuitable when the subject possessed life: thus in "The boy is *a-striking*" or "The boy is *striking*," the verb-phrase could not readily be regarded as passive. This difficulty led to the formation of phrases made with the progressive instead of the simple form of the perfect, or passive, participle: thus, for example, in

The house was being built; The book was being printed.

These are the corresponding passives to the active progressive expressions in:

They are building the house; They were printing the book.

Forms in
good use.

Such progressive forms as *is building* in "The house is building" have never come into general use, on account of their liability to be confounded with the active forms, and such progressive forms as *is being built* and *was being printed* are still regarded by some as bad English, and carefully avoided; but phrases like the latter are also freely used even by writers of the first class, especially in England, and are, consequently, to be considered good usage.

THE PASSIVE CONJUGATION.

231. As in the case of the other conjugation, we give below, in one scheme, the different tense and modal combinations of the passive conjugation.

A.

MOOD AND TENSE FORMS.

I. INDICATIVE.

	Ordinary.	Progressive.
<i>Present.</i>	am loved	am being loved
<i>Past.</i>	was loved	was being loved
<i>Pres. Perfect.</i>	have been loved	
<i>Past Perfect.</i>	had been loved	
<i>Future.</i>	shall or will be loved	
<i>Future Perfect.</i>	shall or will have been loved	
<i>Future Past.</i>	should or would be loved	
<i>Fut. Perf. Past.</i>	should or would have been loved.	

II. SUBJUNCTIVE.

	Ordinary.	Phrasal.
<i>Present.</i>	be loved	may be loved
<i>Past.</i>	were loved	{ might, should or would be loved
<i>Present Perfect.</i>	{ (have been loved, arch.)	may have been loved
<i>Past Perfect.</i>	had been loved	{ might, should or would have been loved

III. IMPERATIVE.

	Ordinary.	Phrasal	Emphatic.
be loved.	{ let (me, you, etc.) be loved		{ do let (me, etc.) be loved

B.

DERIVED FORMS.

	I. INFINITIVE.	II. GERUND.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	be loved, to be loved	being loved
<i>Perfect.</i>	{ have been loved, to have been loved	{ having been loved

III. PARTICIPLES.

	Ordinary.	Progressive.	Phrasal
<i>Perfect.</i>	LOVED	being loved	having been loved

The perfect participle, being itself passive, is the one simple form in this conjugation; and, not having *be* with it as a passive auxiliary, can take it as a progressive sign.

Active and
passive
conjugations.
Active and
passive
voices.

In distinction from the passive conjugation, the other and simpler one is called the *active*; and in languages which have real inflected forms for both uses, the two sets are styled respectively the active voice and the passive voice of the verb.

PASSIVE AND NON-PASSIVE PHRASE-FORMS.

Nature of
passive
phrases.

232. The forms of the auxiliary *be*, that make the passive tenses, are the same as make the progressive active tenses; but they have with them the passive participle, as *given* or *loved*, which marks a thing as acted on; instead of the active, as *giving* or *loving*, which marks a thing as itself acting. In both cases alike, the participle has originally the real value of a predicate adjective, modifying the subject.

Two uses of
pred. perf.
participle in
phrases.

But by no means every case where a perfect participle is combined with the verb *be* is to be regarded as a passive verb-phrase. Often the participle has the value of a predicate adjective merely, and is to be treated like any other adjective. Thus in "He is fatigued"; "He was fatigued in consequence of over-exertion"; *fatigued* has as pure an adjective use as *weary* in "He is weary," and it is to be so parsed; but, if we say "He was fatigued by his exertions," *was fatigued* is a passive verb-phrase, because the sentence is the same as "His exertions fatigued him" cast into a passive form. Hence the combinations of the perfect participle passive with *be* are or are not passive verb-phrases according as the participle denotes actual enduring of action, or condition as the result of action.

Equivalents
of passive
phrases.

Phrases of nearly the same meaning as the ordinary passive ones are made also with the verbs *become* and *get*: thus,

He became frightened; He has got beaten;

but it is not usual, although correct, to reckon them as passive; nor has the latter phrase the sanction of the best usage.

VERBS FORMING PASSIVE PHRASE-FORMS.

Peculiar
passive com-
binations.

233. As a passive verb-phrase is one by which the object of the verb in the active conjugation is turned into the subject of the sentence, passives are regularly made only from those verbs that take a direct object. But this rule is not strictly observed in English. Objects of prepositions and

indirect objects of verbs are also sometimes, by analogy, made subjects of corresponding passive phrases:

(1). We often separate a noun or a pronoun that is really governed by a preposition from that preposition, leaving the latter after the verb, as if it were rather an adverb modifying the verb. Thus, instead of

I had already thought of that plan;
The cases with which he met;

we say also

That plan I had already thought of;
The cases which he met with.

So it comes to seem to us as if *thought of* and *met with* were transitive verbs, and *plan* and *which* their direct objects; and we make the corresponding passives,

That plan had been already thought of by me;
The cases which were met with by him.

This kind of passive is very common, usually, however, with the agent omitted.

(2) Even when a verb is transitive and has a direct object, besides being followed by a preposition with its object, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the corresponding passive phrase. Thus the sentence

We take no notice of such fellows

may be made passive in two ways:

No notice is taken by us of such fellows;
Such fellows are taken no (or, not taken) notice of by us.

(3). Again, in such phrases as

They gave this man to understand (so and so);
I told him to leave;

the words *this man* and *him* are strictly indirect objects. Yet we turn them sometimes (it is not allowed in the case of many verbs) into subjects of passive phrases: thus,

This man was given to understand;
He was told by me to leave.

(4). In such sentences, again, as

It becomes her; He resembles his friend;
The house adjoins the church; She survived her sister;
I'll chance that; The election took place to-day;

we do not use the passive voice, because *her*, *friend*, and *church* are felt to be indirect, rather than direct objects, as

if *becomes*, *resembles*, and *adjoins* meant respectively “is becoming to,” “looks like,” and “is near”; in *survived*, we do not feel that an act is performed on an object—*survived* is rather “lived after”; *chance* is unusual in this sense; and *took place* forms an *idiom*; that is, the meaning of the phrase is not that of its parts combined.

OTHER VERB-FORMS.

234. Any expression which possesses the power of predication is a verb: thus,

(1). Words ordinarily used as other parts of speech.

(1). Words ordinarily used as other parts of speech : thus,

If thou *thou'st* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss;
He *ages* fast; The fire *dries* the room;
Hence, home, ye idle creatures.

(2). Various kinds of phrases.

(2). Phrases. Under this head are included the various active and passive tense and modal combinations, though in these it is the real verb-form that predicates. Such combinations also as are given in par. 233, (1) and (2), above are to be classed as phrase-verbs. With these may be included the phrases in

He *falls in with* my views; The vessel *heaves to*;

in which the modifying element is loosely suffixed instead of being prefixed as in compounds which such phrases resemble. In *don* and *doff*, that is, *do on* and *do off*, we have compounds formed in this way; so, too, we find as noun-phrases *lookers on* and *goings out*, as well as *on lookers* and *out goings*. An object, however, sometimes intervenes between the modifying part and the rest of the verb phrase as, for example, in “I found *him out*,” of which the passive is “*He* was found out.”

(3). Other combinations of words.

(3). Occasionally we find constructions with *more than*, *as much as*, and so on: thus,

He *more-than-spoke*, he voted;
He *has more-than-spoken*, he has voted.
He *as-much-as-said* he would come;
He *has as-much-as-said* he would come.

VIII. NOUNS.

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

235. A noun is usually the name of each member of a whole class of similar things. It is the common name for an indefinite number of individuals, and it belongs to one as much as to another; thus, for example, *lake*, *dog*, *star*. A noun may also be the name given in common to each part of some material: thus, for example, each part of an indefinitely large mass of iron, or coal, or bread, may be called *iron*, or *coal*, or *bread*.

Chief Classes:
(1). Common nouns.
Characteristics.

Nouns used like *lake*, *dog*, *star*, *iron*, *coal*, *bread*, are called **common** nouns (*common* means, of course, "belonging in common to all the individuals").

But a common noun is more than a mere name; for by it we know that the object named possesses certain characteristics: thus, for example, *lake*, besides being the name for each of a number of things, tells us that any one of them is a large body of water surrounded by land. The name *lake* can be applied to any thing that possesses this characteristic, and to nothing else. Common nouns are, therefore, significant words with a certain uniform meaning.

Definition.

236. The name *Erie*, however, is a different kind of name. To many of us, it suggests a particular lake, which is distinguished by this name from other lakes.

(2). Proper nouns.

Such a noun is called a **proper** noun (that is, proper to, or "appropriated to," something in particular). It is a name given to an individual of a class to distinguish it from other individuals of the same class. The noun *Erie* itself, might, however, be applied with equal propriety to a steamboat, or a Pullman car, or a man, or a woman, and so on; and it is, in fact, applied also to a city and a county in the

Definition.

Proper and common nouns contrasted.

United States. This cannot be done with the noun *lake*, which, as we have seen, has a certain uniform meaning.

But the name *Erie*, when we understand it as belonging to the lake so called, represents to our minds all the characteristics of that body of water. Accordingly, the common noun has always a meaning common to all the individuals of the class or the parts of the material; while the proper noun, when connected in our minds with the object it represents, is highly specialized, having a meaning belonging to the one individual only.

237. Sometimes, however, a proper noun may be used in another way: it may represent more than one individual: thus, for example, we call hundreds of people *Smith*. The noun here distinguishes certain human beings from certain other human beings not so named. It is, however, still proper; for it does not imply that the people named *Smith* possess common characteristics different from those possessed by people named *Brown*, or *Jones*, for example. But, if, on the other hand, we call some poets by the name *Milton*, the noun is here common, being significant with a uniform meaning; for it represents human beings possessing in common the literary quality of the poet Milton (254 [1]).

But, as the intention of proper names is to denote individuals and not classes, such names usually have additions called *Christian* names, which render them still more "proper" to individuals (in the same way as does the descriptive noun in a word compounded of two nouns: as, for example, in *sailor-boy*, *man-servant*): thus,

John Smith, Henry Brown, John Plantagenet Smith,

and so on; each addition making the proper noun more markedly proper.

Titles have to some extent the same effect, and are generally related in the same way to the proper names to which they are added (sometimes, indeed, the title is a real adjective): thus,

Miss Smith; Miss Jane Smith; John Smith, Esq.;

John Smith, Jr.; His Excellency, John Smith;

The Honorable John Smith; John Smith, Earl of Utopia.

Proper
nouns.

Used as
common.

Specialized:
(1). By
Christian
names.

(2). By
titles.

238. Some nouns are the names of particular objects: thus, *earth, sun, moon*. Such nouns represent only one object, which is the solitary representative of what might become, or be represented, as a class: thus, we might speak (as, indeed, we do sometimes) of *suns, moons*, and so on; in which case these nouns would be common nouns. As ordinarily used, *sun, moon*, and so on, are, therefore, not common nouns. Nor are they proper nouns, for they can be used only as the names of objects which have certain characteristics. They may be called *individual* nouns to distinguish them from common and proper nouns.

(3). Individual nouns.
Definition.
Characteristics.

239. The meaning of the proper noun was at first especially connected with a single object. It was then applied to this object alone; and, as the mere name marked the individual, its signification became unimportant, and was, therefore, lost sight of. So that proper nouns were at first individual nouns, descriptive of the objects they represented. Examples are

Proper nouns,
at first,
individual.

Rapid City, Whitehead, Land's End, Scotland, England,
Long Sault.

240. Owing to the infinite variety of the meanings of nouns, it is not possible to classify them exhaustively on the basis of meaning. There are, however, a few classes of common nouns of special importance, which need notice here:

Classes of
common
nouns.

(1). Some nouns are names of a vast number of qualities and conditions and relations of objects, which have no real existence apart from the objects that possess them: thus,

(1). Abstract.

place, color, rectitude, frailty, nearness, distance.

Such nouns as *place, color*, and so on, are called *abstract* nouns, because we *abstract* (that is, "draw off, separate") in our minds the notions of the qualities, and so on, from the notions of the objects to which they belong, and think of them by themselves as if they had a separate existence.

In contradistinction to abstract nouns, the names of objects which have a real and separate existence outside of our own minds are called *concrete* (*concrete*

Concrete.

means "formed into one whole," "considered in all their properties together").

(2). Col-
lectives.

(2). Some nouns signify, not any single thing, but a *collection*, or a certain number, of single things. Such nouns we have already (117) called, and described as *collectives*. Examples are

army, flock, school-board, legislature, senate.

(3). Gender-
nouns.

(3). Some nouns, again, mark the thing signified by them as male or female: thus,

man, woman; son, daughter; actor, actress; hero, heroine

Such nouns are called *gender-nouns* (*gender*, in older English, means "a kind, class, or sex").

Masculine.

And those gender-nouns that signify male beings are called *masculine* nouns, or nouns of the *masculine gender*; while those that signify female beings are called *feminine* nouns, or nouns of the *feminine gender*.

Feminine.

Neuter.

All other nouns—those that are not gender-nouns, or have nothing to do with defining sex—are called *neuter* nouns, or nouns of the *neuter gender* (that is, that represent objects "*neither* of one sex nor of the other"). Either they belong to objects that have no sex, like *sun*, *day*, *virtue*; or they are given indifferently to beings of both sexes: as *child*, *bird*, *hound*.

Definition of
gender.

Gender in Modern English is, therefore, strictly speaking, the distinction of words as masculine or feminine, corresponding to the distinction of living objects as male or female. The distinction, however, is of practical importance only so far as concerns the proper use of the pronouns of the third person and their derivatives, and there is no need to say anything about gender unless the noun actually implies a distinction of sex.

Gender
shown by

241. A distinction of sex is indicated by common nouns in three ways:

(1). Different
words.

(1). By the use of different words. Examples are

buck, doe; hart, roe; boy, girl; stag, hind;
brother, sister; monk, nun.

(2). By masculine gender-nouns, and by feminine gender-nouns derived therefrom by means of suffixes (-ess is the only one by which fresh feminines are now formed). Examples are

hero, heroine; baron, baroness; abbot, abbess;
duke, duchess; marquis, marchioness.

But words, imperfectly naturalized, retain their original forms. Examples are

<i>Lat.</i> , testatrix < testator;	<i>Slav.</i> , czarina < czar;
<i>Du.</i> , landgravine < landgrave;	<i>Arab.</i> , sultana < sultan;
<i>Fr.</i> , belle < beau;	<i>Span.</i> , donna < don.
<i>Ital.</i> , signora < signor(e);	

(3). By compounding the pronoun *he* or *she*, or gender-nouns, with nouns or adjectives. Examples are

he-goat, she-goat; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow;
peacock, peahen; landlord, landlady;
gentleman, gentlewoman.

From *bride* O.E. *brýð* we have *bridegroom* (O.E. *brýð-guma*) by adding a word meaning "man."

242. In Old English there were three sets of suffixes to express gender: thus, for example,

- | | |
|--|--|
| (1). Masc., widuw- <i>a</i> (widow- <i>er</i>); | Fem., widuw- <i>e</i> (widow); |
| (2). " spinn- <i>ere</i> (male spin-
ner); | " spinn- <i>estre</i> (female
spinner); |
| " sang- <i>ere</i> (male
singer); | " sang- <i>estre</i> (female
singer); |
| (3). " fox (male); | " fyx- <i>en</i> (female), by
mutation. |

All the italicized endings have disappeared except in the above words, and *widow* has dropped the *e* of the fem., adding -*er* for the masc.; *spinner* is now neuter; and *spinster* means an unmarried woman; *songster* is neuter, and we have the double fem. *songstr-ess*; while *fyx-en* has been voiced to *vixen* (248 [1] (b)).

243. A distinction corresponding to gender in common nouns is also made in the case of Christian names, generally by the use of different names (compare 241 [1]): thus,

John, Thomas, James; Margaret, Kate, Isabella;

and occasionally by the use of feminine derivative forms: (compare 241 [2]): thus,

Paul, Pauline; George, Georgina; Henry, Henrietta.

(2). Derivatives.

Words not fully naturalized.

(3). Compounds.

O.E. gender suffixes.

Modern survivals.

Gender in proper nouns.

Such nouns, however, being proper, are not real gender-nouns; they may be applied to any object whatever which we may wish to distinguish, although they are generally used as the names of persons. Sometimes, indeed, the forms that are usually masculine are applied to female objects, and the forms that are usually feminine, to male objects.

Gender in
other
languages.
Grammatical
and Natural.

244. In Modern English, sex has been adopted as the basis of the classification of genders; but, in Old English and in most other languages—as, for instance, Latin, Greek, and German—while nouns denoting males and females are generally masculine and feminine respectively, those denoting objects without life are classified as masculine, feminine, or neuter, in what seems an arbitrary way, the gender depending on the suffix the word originally had. This distinction, which affects words only, is known as *true*, or *grammatical*, gender in contradistinction is *natural* gender, in which, as in Modern English, the gender of the noun corresponds to the sex of the object.

INFLECTED FORMS.

Declension.

245. As we have already seen (95 and 102), some nouns are inflected, or varied in form, to express differences of number and relation. This inflection is called *declension* (105).

Number
and Case.

There are two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural* (95), and two case forms, the *common* one representing both the *nominative* and the *objective* (103); and the *possessive* (102), which is formed by inflection.

Plural and
Possessive.

246. So far as speech is concerned, both the plural and the possessive are formed by adding an *s*-sound variously modified.

(1). How
formed in
speech.

As in the case of the verb (164), nouns may be divided into three classes, according as they end in (1) the hiss-sounds *s*, *z*, *sh* (*ch*=*tsh*, and *j*=*dz*); (2) the other voiced consonants and the vowels; and (3) the other voiceless consonants.

And, as the result of association, the *-s* of the inflection is differently sounded in each class: thus, as an *iz*, an additional syllable, in the first; as the voiced *z* in the second; and as the voiceless *s* in the third.

In writing, the forms of these classes are thus represented in Modern English :

	Class I.		Class II.		Class III.
<i>Sing. Com.</i>	horse	lass	hoe	dog	cat
<i>Plur. " "</i>	horses	lasses	hoes	dogs	cats
<i>Sing. Poss.</i>	horse's	lass's	hoe's	dog's	cat's
<i>Plur. " "</i>	horses'	lasses'	hoes'	dogs'	cats'

House (pr. *houss*), pl. *houses* (pr. *houzez*), is a case by itself.

247. The following are the O.E. declensions, as written (the sounds we need not notice), of *stán*, "a stone"; *caru*, "care"; *hors*, "a horse"; *scip*, "a ship"; *oxa*, "an ox"; and *eáge*, "an eye." Besides the three cases (called in O.E. the nominative, genitive, and accusative) we find a dative, and, according to some, an instrumental:

(2). How shown in writing.

Reference table of O.E. declensions.

SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>stán</i>	<i>car-u</i>	<i>hors</i>	<i>scip</i>	<i>ox-a</i>	<i>eág-e</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>stán-es</i>	<i>car-e</i>	<i>hors-es</i>	<i>scip-es</i>	<i>ox-an</i>	<i>eág-an</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>stán-e</i>	<i>car-e</i>	<i>hors-e</i>	<i>scip-e</i>	<i>ox-an</i>	<i>eág-an</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>stán</i>	<i>car-e</i>	<i>hors</i>	<i>scip</i>	<i>ox-an</i>	<i>eág-e</i>

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>stán-as</i>	<i>car-a</i>	<i>hors</i>	<i>scip-u</i>	<i>ox-an</i>	<i>eág-an</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>stán-a</i>	{ <i>car-a</i> <i>car-ena</i>	<i>hors-a</i>	<i>scip-a</i>	<i>ox-ena</i>	<i>eág-ena</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>stán-um</i>	<i>car-um</i>	<i>hors-um</i>	<i>scip-um</i>	<i>ox-um</i>	<i>eág-um</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>stán-as</i>	<i>car-a</i>	<i>hors</i>	<i>scip-u</i>	<i>ox-an</i>	<i>eág-an</i>

The endings became gradually reduced: first the dat. plural became *-un*, and then the endings *a*, *o*, *u*, everywhere became *e*, and forms in *-an* and *-un* became *-en*. With these changes, inflectional differences disappeared, and the influence of analogy completed the work by reducing all to the type of nouns like *stán*, with plurals and possessives in *-es*.

Pl. and poss. ending, *es*: Origin.

NUMBER.

MODERN FORMS.

248. As we have said (246), English nouns regularly form their plurals by adding an *s*-sound, variously modified. The following are types:

hoes, dogs; cats; horses, lasses.

Mod. mode of forming plurals.

The pl. ending *es* (247) was pronounced for a time as a separate syllable, but by the beginning of the Mod. E. period, it ceased to be a separate syllable except when retained for phonetic reasons, as in *horses*, *lasses*; and the *e* was dropped in those nouns that did not retain it in the nom. sing.; thus *armes* became *arms*, and *lordes*, *lords*.

Origin of Mod. mode.

Other
changes on
addition of -s.

But, sometimes the addition of the regular plural inflection is accompanied with other changes besides those given in par. 246.

(1). Nouns in
f-sound:
general rule.

(1). Of nouns ending in an *f*-sound (*-f* or *-fe*), the following have voiced *-ves* in the plural:

knife, life, wife, leaf, thief, sheaf, loaf;
and nouns in *-lf*, except *gulf*.

This is a useful general rule, to which *wharf* and *staff*, given below, are exceptions.

A good deal of irregularity prevails in the formation of the plurals of nouns ending in an *f*-sound; but, if we look for some underlying principle, we find that:

Of English
origin.

(a). Words of English origin ending in an *f*-sound with a preceding long vowel sound regularly end in the voiced *ves*: thus,

leaf, leaves; knife, knives; thief, thieves; calf, calves;
except *roofs*, *hoofs*, *beliefs*, *dwarfs*, *scarfs*, *wharfs*.

And the plural regularly ends in the voiceless *s* when the final *f*-sound is preceded by a short vowel: thus,

cliffs, puffs, muffs, ruffs, turfs, mischiefs.

But *elf*, *self*, *shelf*, have *elves*, *selves*, and *shelves*; *staff* has *staves* (usual sense) and *staffs* (military bodies); the compound *flagstaff* has *flagstaffs*; *wharf* has still sometimes *wharves*, but *scarves*, *dwarves*, *turves*, once in use, are now obsolete.

Of Romanic
origin.

(b). In words of Romanic origin, the *f*-sound is voiceless and the plural is regular, ending in voiceless *s*, except *beeves* from the obsolete *beef*: thus,

brief, briefs; chief, chiefs; fife, fifes; strife, strifes.

Explanation
of exceptions.

In Old English the *f*-sound was generally voiced, as even now in *of*, and in the Mid. English period, the spelling was frequently made to conform. In the English dialects, indeed, we still find *v* where standard English has *f*: thus, in Dorset,

vrom, avore, volk, vind, vloor.

In foreign words, the original voiceless *-f* remains in the plural, and, in some pure English words, the plurals in *-ves* were retained probably to differentiate meanings in the plural, as *staffs*, *staves*; and in the possessive sing., also, as *calf's*, *calves*.

(2). Nearly all nouns with voiceless *-th* in the sing., have the voiceless *-ths* in the plural: for example,

birth, death, hearth.

(2). Nouns with voiced and voiceless *-ths*.

Some have both voiced and voiceless *-ths*, with a preference for the voiceless sound: thus,

lath, moth, truth, youth;

and the following have the voiced *-ths* only:

bath, path, oath, mouth.

Cloth (compare *staff*) has *cloths*, "different kinds of cloth," and *clothes*, "dress"; both *-th*'s being voiced.

As in the case of nouns ending in an *f*-sound, the O.E. *-th* was probably voiced. Generally speaking, the tendency is to use the voiced *-ths* after a long vowel; and the voiceless, after a short vowel, or a short vowel and a consonant, or after *-r*.

(3). *Die*, *pea*, and *penny* have each another plural besides the regular one, the different forms being used in somewhat different senses: thus,

(3). Nouns with two plurals.

dies, "stamps for coining"; *dice*, "cubes for gaming";
peas, "separate seeds"; *pease*, collective;
pennies, "separate coins"; *pence*, collective.

(4). Nouns in everyday use, ending in *o* or *y* after a consonant, add *-es* instead of *-s*, changing *y* to *i*: thus,

(4). Nouns in *o*, *y*, and *i*.

cargo, cargoes; pony, ponies; colloquy, colloquies.

The following, which may be regarded as imperfectly naturalized, have plurals in *-s*:

bravo, cento, embryo, grotto, memento, rondo, stiletto,
 piano, solo, domino, tyro, virtuoso (also virtuosi [250]);
 and such words as *quarto*, *octavo*.

Of a few nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, the spelling is, for the same reason, still unsettled. Examples are

calico, innuendo, mosquito, mulatto, portico.

The rarely occurring final *i* is treated like *y*; thus, *alkali*, *alkalies*; but *mufti* has *muftis*, as the word is imperfectly naturalized.

The exceptions to the general rule, that the plurals of words in *o*, *y*, and *i* are formed by adding *-es*, are mere matters of spelling: the sound is the same in all cases. Probably the form in *-es* is preferred in writing, lest the

Exceptions to the general rule, matters of spelling.

addition of *-s* should suggest the sound of *oss*. After a vowel, *o* has, of course, a long sound; hence *intaglio*, *intaglios*.

Origin of
plurals in
-ies.

The plural of nouns in *-y* after a consonant was regularly formed from the old singular ending *ie*: thus, *ladies* < *ladie*, or *ladye* (*y* and *i* having been interchangeable from an early period). The final *e* of the singular, being found unnecessary, was dropped, and final *y* was preferred to *i*.

(1). Plurals of
letters, etc.

(5). Letters and figures, and a word used as a noun in the sense of "the word so-and-so," usually put an apostrophe before the *-s* that forms the plural: thus,

Dot your i's and cross you t's; In 999 there are three 9's;
He uses too many I's and me's and my's.

This also is, of course, a mere matter of spelling.

OLD FORMS.

Plurals:

249. The foregoing are the modern modes of forming the plural; but a few English nouns in very common use have their plurals formed in ways that are now obsolete:

(1). By
mutation.

(1). By mutation, without any ending: thus,

man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; tooth, teeth;
goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice;

the last two have also a change of spelling from *s* to *c*.

In Old English these words were

Sing., man, wifman, fôt, tóth, gôs, lús, mús;
Plur., men, wifmen, fét, téth, gés, lys, mýs.

Breeches < the O.E. plur. *bréc*, sing. *bróc*, has conformed to the general rule, but retains the mutated vowel.

(2). By
adding *-en*.

(2). By the addition of *-en*, with or without mutation: thus,

ox, oxen; brother, brethren (or, brothers); child, children;
cow, (in old style) kine.

The plurals of *brother* and *cow* are now used in different senses: thus,

brothers, related by blood; *brethren*, of the same community;
cows, individual; *kine*, collective.

Their origin.

The development of *brethren*, *children*, and *kine* was as follows:

brethren < *brether* < *brothre* < *brothru*, pl. of O.E. *brothar*;
children < *childer* and *childre* < *cildru*, pl. of O.E. *cild*;
kine < *kyn* or *kyen* < *eý* or *ký*, mut. pl. of O.E. *cu*.

The *-ren* represents the original plural ending *r-u*, to which *-en* was added by analogy, when the *u* had lost its plural force, and the form had also become weakened. *Brether*, *childer*, and *kye* are still found in dialectical English. The *-e* is retained in *kine*, to show that the *i* is long.

In O.E., *-an* (*-en*) was the commonest plural suffix; hence it was the last to disappear. Examples of its use in words, not long obsolete, or still in provincial dialects, are:

Survivals of
other O.E.
forms in
-n, or *-en*.

een, "eyes"; hosen, "hose"; shoon, "shoes";
pesen, "peas"; toon, "toes."

FOREIGN FORMS.

250. A considerable number of words taken unchanged from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages. Examples are

Foreign
nouns retain
their plurals:

<i>Lat.</i> , formula, formulæ;	<i>Gr.</i> , phenomenon, phenomena;
"genus, genera;	<i>Fr.</i> , messieurs;
"genius, genii;	"madam, mesdames;
"stratum, strata;	"beau, beaux;
"basis, bases;	<i>Ital.</i> , virtuoso, virtuosi;
"index, indices;	"bandit, banditti;
"appendix, appendices;	<i>Heb.</i> , seraph, seraphim;
<i>Gr.</i> , miasma, miasmata;	"cherub, cherubim.
"analysis, analyses;	

The Latin *series*, *species*, *superficies*, *apparatus*, have no variation of form to express number.

But many of such words, being in frequent use, make regular English plurals as well as foreign ones: thus, for example,

Except when
naturalized.

formulas, geniuses, indexes, bandits, virtuosos,
seraphs, cherubs.

The two forms of plurals, when both established, are generally used in different senses: thus,

Different
forms with
different
meanings.

genii, "spirits"; *geniuses*, "persons of unusual ability";
indices, "signs in Algebra"; *indexes*, "reference tables";
formulas, "prescribed words"; *formulæ*, "scientific expressions."

Messieurs (shortened to *Messrs.*) is the French *mes sieurs*, "my masters"; but for the singular we use *Mr.* (an abbreviation for *Mister*, i.e. *Master*, an older form), not having adopted the corresponding singular, *Monsieur*. *Madam* is the naturalized French *Madame*, the French plural *Mesdames* having been adopted unchanged. For the singular, *Mrs.* (i.e. *Mistress*, the feminine of *Mr.*) is generally used as a title prefixed to a name.

Common
titles of
respect.

History of
plurals of
foreign
nouns.

251. Most of such words as those in par. 250, have been introduced during the Mod. Eng. period, the technical ones having been used at first only by the educated, and with the foreign plurals. As soon, however, as any of them came into general use, they showed a tendency to take English plurals. Confusion, of course, followed, resulting, in some cases, in one plural being selected, and, in others, in both being retained with somewhat different meanings, our convenience having decided the question in both cases. But usage has been by no means uniform; for we find that *bisons*, *ideas*, *sphinxes*, *omens*, and *dogmas* have driven out the older *bisontes*, *ideae*, *sphinges*, *omina*, and *dogmata*; while *genera*, *magi*, *beaux*, are preferred to *geniuses*, *maguses*, *beaus*. The inability of the uneducated to feel the force of a foreign plural has led to the formation of such double plurals as *seraphims*, *cherubims*, and to the belief that *stamina*, *effluvia*, etc., are singulars (which was really true of *alms*, *eaves*, *riches*, at an earlier date [255]). So, too, we sometimes find *animalculae* used by poor scholars as a plural for the supposed singular *animalcula*, which is really the plural of *animalculum*.

Plurals of
other foreign
words.

252. English adopts also from other languages words that are other parts of speech than nouns, using them as nouns and forming their plurals as if they were English nouns: thus,

aliases, ignoramuses, items, bonuses, extras, Te Deums.

EXCEPTIONAL USES OF MODERN FORMS.

I. Singular
forms with
plural
meanings.

253. Some nouns use, either generally or in certain senses, their singular form with a plural meaning also, instead of forming a proper plural: thus,

(1). Certain
names of
animals.

(1). Certain names of animals: as

sheep, deer, swine, neat, fish (also *fishes*, taken separately);
and sundry kinds of fish: as

cod, mackerel, perch, trout, salmon, shad, pike.

Most of the words in the first list are neuter in Old English, and, having had no plural inflection in the nom. and acc. (see *hors*, 247), are of the same form as the singular. The other words are used as collectives.

(2). Collec-
tives.

(2). Certain words, mostly collectives and names of measures, weights, etc., used with numerals in counting objects or telling their number, etc.: thus,

brace, pair, yoke, dozen, gross, ton, head, sail.

The same peculiarity shows itself in the case of certain nouns compounded with numerals: thus,

twelvemonth, *fortnight*, *sennight* (that is, "seven nights");

and in the same way we have the singular form in such expressions as

an eighteen *penny* book, a three *foot* rule,
an eighty *gun* ship, a ten *horse* power engine.

The absence of the plural inflection in these words is probably due partly to analogy, and partly to the circumstance that the numeral indicates plurality, and thus renders unnecessary the plural inflection; for when we say, for instance, "a *one cent* stamp," it seems sufficient to say "a *two cent* stamp."

Nouns compounded with numerals.

(3). A few other words: as,

cannon, shot, heathen, people.

(3). Special cases.

There are few of such words that do not sometimes, in some uses, form a plural like other nouns: thus,

shot, "balls"; *shots*, "discharges";
cannon "collective"; *cannons*, "individual guns";
peoples, "different nationalities."

254. Some nouns are rarely or never used, except in the singular. These are especially proper nouns, nouns of material, and abstract nouns.

II. Singular forms only:
Proper, abstract, material.

Under certain circumstances some of these nouns do, however, take plural forms.

(1.) Proper names are capable of forming plurals signifying individuals merely bearing the same name without any characteristics in common (237): as

Sometimes plural.
(1). Proper

the Smiths and the Browns; all the Wednesdays;

or individuals resembling in characteristics the one to whom the proper name at first belonged: as

the Miltons and the Shakespeares of our century.

The plurals of proper nouns are, in general, formed regularly: thus,

The Smiths, the Catos, the Beattys, the Joneses.

Usage, however, is not uniform on this point, for proper names in very common use, occasionally, like common

nouns, make other changes besides the addition of the regular plural ending: thus,

the Maries, the Henries;

and some people write the plurals of proper nouns thus:

the Smith's, the Percy's, the Cato's.

But the latter mode of formation is unjustifiable, as such forms might be confused with the possessives.

(2). Names of materials.

(2). Most names of material are also used as names of articles made of that material, or as names of kinds of it, or masses of it, and so on; and as such have plurals: thus,

a ship's coppers; the leads of a roof;
the clays and gravels of the West; the snows of winter.

(3). Abstract nouns.

(3). And a great many abstract nouns form plurals signifying the quality in separate acts or exhibitions; thus,

a good man's charities; the heats of summer;
the loves of the angels; the beauties of its form.

III. Plural forms only, with pl. meanings.

255. Some nouns, on the other hand, which are the names of masses or collections of single objects, or of objects consisting of several parts, are used only in the plural, and are construed so: thus,

thanks, proceeds, filings, billiards, bowels, victuals, vitals,
wages, annals, nuptials, breeches, drawers.

So, too, with some foreign plurals: as

aborigines, antipodes, literati, minutiae, errata, stamina.

Some plurals originally singular.

The following nouns also, which are derived from singular forms are now construed as if they were plural:

alms < O.E. *ælmesse*; riches < O.E. *richesse*;
pease < M.E. *pese*, pl. *pesen*; eaves < O.E. *efes*, M.E. *eves*.

Even in Modern English, *alms* and *riches* were once used as singulars: thus

None was heard to ask *an* alms;
In one hour *is* so great riches come to naught.

The plural construction in Modern English is due to the combined influence of their plural forms, and of the circumstance that the words themselves suggest a plural meaning.

Special forms.

The sing. *pea* is formed from the M.E. *pese*; the final hiss-sound being supposed to be a plural sign. So, too, in vulgar English, we have *Chinee* and *Portugee* formed from *Chinese* and *Portugese*.

Summons (O. Fr. *semonse*), which also is plural in form, though etymologically singular, is still singular, with plural *summonses*. *Mouasses* (Port. *melaco*), like *summons*, is really singular, and should be so construed.

256. We have seen that some singular nouns are frequently construed as plural (253). Some plural nouns, on the other hand, are construed as singular, being regarded as representing one whole: thus,

IV. Plural forms with singular meanings.

amends, bellows, gallows, means (sometimes plural), news, nuptials, pains ("trouble"), sessions, shambles.

Of many words that have now the plural form only, the singular is found in older English in the same sense as the modern plurals. Examples of older singular forms are

Their singular also in older English.

amend, gallow, mean, nuptial, pain, tiding, thank, wage.

Names of branches of study ending in *-ics*, when they are the names of collective bodies of doctrine are also construed as singular. Examples are

ethics, mathematics, physics, optics, politics.

The circumstance that the Greek words are plural, from which are derived our names of sciences in *-ics*, conjoined with the fact that these sciences treat of various subjects, probably caused us to give the adjective in *-ic* the plural form, just as we do in the case of *eatables*, *sweets*, *vitals*, and so on. In making *logic* singular, we follow the Greek usage, which supplies after the adjective the word for "art."

Why some are plural.

257. And, again, a few nouns seem to have plurals with altered meanings. Examples are

V. Plural forms with altered meanings.

iron, irons; corn, corns; good, goods; salt, salts.

Many of such nouns, however, have really two meanings in the singular, some taking the plural corresponding to the less common singular meaning. Thus, *iron*, being the name of a material, does not take a plural; and *irons* is the plural of a new singular, an *iron*. *Salt*, again, has also a less usual plural, meaning one of a class of chemical compounds. Such words are, therefore, really referable to par. 258 below.

258. We have seen that some nouns have two forms for the plural, with different meanings (249 [2] and 250). Some nouns also have one form for

VI. Plural forms with different meanings.

the plural, with one meaning corresponding to the singular, and one or more different from it: thus,

pains, (1) "sufferings," (2) "trouble";
letters, (1) of the alphabet, (2) literature, (3) "epistles";
customs, (1) "habits," (2) "revenue duties";
numbers, (1) in counting, (2) in poetry;
parts, (1) "divisions," (2) "abilities."

COMPOUNDS.

VII. Plurals of compounds: general rule.

259. Compound nouns add the sign of the plural to the noun part; or to the principal noun (the one modified by the other), if the compound consist of two nouns. Examples are

blackbirds, merchantmen, housetops, brothers-in-law,
 steamboats, hangers-on, drawbridges, afterthoughts,

also such expressions as

master workmen, brother officers,

which, though really temporary compounds (89), are often written without a hyphen.

The following formations need to be noticed:

(1). Valued as simple.

(1). Some words, originally compounds, which would fall under the above rule, but which are no longer felt to be compounds, are treated as simple words: thus,

mouthfuls, handfuls.

(2). Descriptive.

(2). A descriptive compound adds -s to the last word, whether noun or not: as

redcoats, turnkeys, runaways, forget-me-nots, three-per-cents, castaways, good-bys (*good-byes* from *good-bye*).

(3). Proper.

(3). Compound proper nouns pluralize the last: thus,
 the John Smiths, the John Henry Smiths.

(4). Titles: Of one part.

(4). In the plurals of titles, usage varies; we may say
 the Mr. John Smiths, the Miss Smiths, the Doctor Smiths,
 as well as

the Messrs. John Smith, the Misses Smith, the Doctors Smith.

The latter is the more correct mode of formation; but, being felt to be formal, it is not so common as the former. In the construction with *brothers*, etc., we often evade the difficulty by saying, *the Smith brothers*, etc.

When, however, *the* is omitted, we must say

Messrs. Smith, Messrs. John and Thomas Smith, Misses Smith, Misses Jane and Louisa Smith.

When the title consists of two parts, the latter is now generally pluralized, in accordance with the general law: as

Of two parts.

major-generals, governor-generals, lieutenant-governors.

But a few obsolete expressions occur, in which, after the French idiom, both parts are pluralized: thus,

knights-templars, knights-errants, lords-justices.

Note also the modern

men-servants, women-servants.

CASE.

260. As we have seen (102-104), English nouns have three so-called cases, the nominative, possessive and objective, with, however, only two different forms, one for the possessive and the other (the common case-form) for all other functions and relations.

Number of cases.

THE POSSESSIVE.

261. As we have also seen (246) the possessive case in the singular is made by adding to the noun an *s*, before which an apostrophe is written, to show that the *e* of *-es*, the old sign, is omitted, and to prevent us from confusing this form with plurals in *-s*. And the sign of the possessive follows the same rules for pronunciation as the *-s* of the plural; but it is never written *es*. After the hiss-sounds, it makes an additional syllable, the *e* being omitted to prevent confusion with the plural forms.

Possessive sing., how formed.

Its pronunciation.

But a singular noun of more than one syllable ending in an *s* (voiced or voiceless) sometimes omits the possessive sign, to avoid the disagreeable repetition of hiss-sounds. In such a case an apostrophe is written alone at the end, as a sign to the eye: thus,

Modifications.

Moses' law; for conscience' (or acquaintance') sake.

But we must say and write

a mouse's skin, James's hat, James's sake, etc.;

and in spoken language the full form is often used, especially in the case of proper names.

Poss. plural
of nouns:

(1). Not
ending in *s*.

(2). Ending
in *s*.

Plurals not ending in *s* make their possessive case, by analogy, in the same way as singulars: thus,
men's, children's, mice's, sheep's.

And, as in the case of singular nouns of more than one syllable, plurals ending in *s* make no change in pronunciation for their possessive cases; but an apostrophe is written after the *s* as a sign to the eye of the possessive use: thus,

cats', dogs', ladies', horses', judges'.

History of
the possessive.

262. As the O.E. paradigms show (247), there were originally different genitive endings, *es* being at first limited to one declension and the other common endings being *e* and *an*. Some of our compounds contain, or once contained, these endings: thus,

Tuesday < O. E. *Tiw-es dæg*, "day of Tiw, the war-god";
Friday < O. E. *Frig-e dæg*, "day of Frigu, goddess of love";
Sunday < O. E. *Sunn-an dæg*, "day of the Sun."

The ending *es* was for a time a distinct syllable: thus, in Shakespeare,

To show his teeth as white as whales bone.

Old incorrect
theory as to
origin of *-s*.

When the origin of the possessive inflection had been forgotten, *'s* was for a time supposed to be a corruption of *his*. This erroneous belief was probably due to the fact that in Old and Middle English, this pronoun was occasionally written instead of the genitive ending *is* (or *es*): thus,

Enac his cynryn, "Anac his children";

and possibly also to the fact that the *is* was sometimes written apart from its noun: thus, in Middle English,

Anoynt the *hawke is* erys ("hawk's ears") with oile of olive.

The *his* and *is* were in this way confused, especially as *h* in rapid speech is but slightly pronounced. Accordingly we find, especially in works of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, such expressions as

For Jesus Christ *his* sake; Mordecai *his* matters;
John Smith *his* book.

By some, indeed, *her* also was used by analogy after feminine nouns.

Possessives
(1). Of com-
pounds.

263. Owing to the necessity for showing the relation of the expression as a whole, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of a compound, of whatever kind it may be: thus, "his *father-in-law's*

house.''' The same rule is followed in the case of a combination of two names, of a name preceded by a title, of a noun preceded or followed by descriptive or limiting words, and so on: thus,

Mr. John Smith's horse; Thomas Robinson, Esq.'s residence; his dead master Edward's memory; at my cousin William Thompson's; such a man as Smith's hat; Mr. what do you call him's house.

264. Even when nouns are connected by *and* or *or*, the possessive sign is added only to the last of them when they form a compound notion: thus,

(2). Of nouns joined by *and* or *or*.

John and Mary's book; in Anne and George's time; a fortnight or three weeks' possession.

When, however, each object the noun represents is referred to separately, the case-sign is repeated: thus,

John's and Mary's book; in Anne's and George's time; for two different books and two different times are here meant.

265. The use of the possessive case as the case of *possession* (taking this word in a somewhat loose sense [102 and 141]) is by far the most common of all in English of the present day. It is used loosely with nouns of time, space, or weight, and certain dignified objects: thus,

General function of possessive. Examples of looser meaning.

a day's journey; three days' grace; a stone's throw;
a hand's breadth; a pound's weight;
the law's delays; the earth's axis; heaven's will;

and, for shortness, in certain familiar expressions: thus,

the boat's crew; at his fingers' ends; in harm's way;
to my heart's content; the journey's end; the ship's crew;
for mercy's sake; at his wits' end.

But there are two or three other uses which call for notice.

(1). If the modified noun signifies some action or condition and this can be expressed by a verb of which the noun in the possessive becomes the *subject*, the case is called a *subjective* possessive. Thus, in

Special uses.
(1). Subjective.

A mother's love; Troy's fall; the bugle's sound;
it is implied that

the mother loves; Troy has fallen; the bugle sounds.

(2). Objective.

(2). If, on the other hand, the noun in the possessive would become the *object* of the verb expressing the action or condition, we call it an *objective* possessive. Thus, in

earth's creator ; sin's rebuke ; his murder ;
it is implied that ~~some~~ one
created earth ; rebuked sin ; murdered him.

The objective possessive is much less common in English than the subjective.

(3). Appositive.

(3). Once more, if the relation of the two nouns is logically that of *apposition*, and might be so expressed, the case is called an *appositive* possessive ; thus,

Britain's isle ; Numidia's spacious kingdom.

The appositive possessive is now almost obsolete, but it occurs sometimes in poetry. It is analogous to appositive adjective phrases with *of* in such constructions as

the city of London ; the continent of America.

Phrase-
equivalent
of the
possessive.

266. For the possessive case in almost all its uses we can put the objective with *of*: thus,

the cat's head, the head of the cat ; the king's
enemies, the enemies of the king.

Sometimes, however, the two forms have different meanings: thus,

the Lord's day ; the day of the Lord.

And many nouns are rarely or never used in the possessive, the other mode of expression being employed instead.

Falsely
partitive
possessive.

267. During the Middle English period, a possessive phrase came into use (how, we do not know for certain), consisting of the preposition *of* with the possessive in -s. Examples are

a servant of John's, a poem of Kipling's ; that wife of
James's ; that face of my father's.

By it we secure

Its value in
expression.

(1). Somewhat greater emphasis ; thus, the notion of possession is somewhat more emphatic in "a servant of *John's*" than in "*John's* servant ;"

(2). A form of expression which is necessary in certain cases: thus we say, "a servant of *John's*," and "that face of *my father's*," not "a *John's*

servant" and "that *my father's* face"; the former would change the meaning, and the latter is felt to be awkward.

(3). A means of expressing two different notions: thus "a picture of *John's*" means a picture belonging to John, whereas "a picture of *John*" means a likeness of John.

268. The phrase "a servant of John's" may be taken to mean "one of John's servants," in which case *servants* is the object of *of* used in a *partitive* sense (*partitive* means "expressing a part"); but "that face of my father's" (an extension of the construction, due to analogy) cannot mean "that one of my father's faces." This latter expression is *partitive* in form, but not in reality; and we, therefore, call all such possessive phrases *falsely partitive*. When we use them, we think simply of possession, even when the *partitive* notion would suit, as in "a servant of John's."

Partitive in form; not in meaning.

THE DIRECT AND THE INDIRECT OBJECTIVE.

269. There are certain uses of the noun (or pronoun) which represent the so-called dative case, which was formerly distinguished in English, by a difference of form (247), and which is still so distinguished in many languages. It expressed the relation usually expressed in Modern English by *to* or *for*, as the possessive expresses that signified by *of*.

Function of direct objective.

But, as there are no words in English, not even pronouns, which have for such dative uses a special form different from the objective, we call a word so used an *indirect* objective; and distinguish the other, when necessary, as the *direct* objective (227)

270. Notwithstanding the phonetic reduction described in par. 247, a few dative forms survive in present English; as, for example, in *seld-om* and the archaic *whil-om* (O. E. *whil-um*, "at times"), and in the written form of many nouns in which final *e* (originally the dat. ending) is retained to show the long sound of the preceding vowel: thus, for example, *stone* (O. E. *stán-e*, dat. from *stán*, "a stone" [247]).

Survivals of O. E. datives.

Original
datives with-
out the sign.

271. An original dative without the sign has been preserved after *nigh*, *near*, *nearer*, *next*, *like*, and *unlike* in their different uses : thus,

He was near falling ; She sits near me ;
A man like few others ; He drives like Jehu ;

and in the following archaic expressions :

Woe is *me* ! Woe *me* ! Woe the *day* ! Woe the *while* !

Woe worth (184) the *chase*, woe worth the *day*.

Dat. and
obj. absolute.

In the oldest English, the dative was the absolute case (150), as is the ablative in Latin. About the middle of the fourteenth century the nom. began to displace it. In Milton we find a few examples of the obj. absolute in the case of pronouns (probably in imitation of the Latin): thus,

him destroyed, us dispossessed, me overthrown.

THE NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

No inflection
for person.

272. Nouns have no distinction of person: that is to say, a noun used as subject takes the verb always in the same person, the third, even though used by the speaker about himself, or in addressing another: thus,

The subscriber gives notice ; Is your honor well ?

But we often address an object by name: thus,

O God ! Ye stars ! See here, my friend ;
What do you mean, you blockhead ?

Some languages have for this use a special form, which is called the *vocative* case: we use the common case; and we distinguish it, when thus used, as the *nominative of address* (156).

Nom. of
address, like
interjection.

273. A nominative of address is never a member of a sentence; it forms no part of either subject or predicate, but stands by itself, like an interjection. But it may have the same words or phrases, or even clauses, added to it as the other cases have, by way of limitation or description. Thus, for example:

Your Grace of York, set forward ! O great Sciolto !
O my more than father ! Our Father which art in heaven.

OTHER FORMS OF NOUNS.

WORDS.

274. Words that are not usually nouns, also combinations of words, even phrases and clauses, are used in sentences with the value of nouns.

Adjectives are especially often used in this way: I. Adjectives.

(1). Some adjectives are used in the singular with the value of an abstract noun, meaning "that which is so and so," or the like: thus, (1). Abstract nouns.

Avoid the wrong and choose the right.

(2). Almost any adjective may be used as a plural noun, signifying the persons in general that have the quality denoted by the adjective: thus, (2). Plural nouns.

Give to the poor; The virtuous alone are happy.

In Elizabethan English, such adjectives were sometimes used in the singular: thus, in Shakespeare,

For ever will I walk upon my knees,
And never see day that *the happy sees*.

(3). Many adjectives are used as nouns, either in the singular or in the plural, to signify persons or things, such as would be described by the adjective. Examples are (3). Sing. or pl. nouns.

a noble, the nobles, a brave ("Indian warrior").

So, especially, an adjective that means belonging to a certain country, or race, or sect, or party: thus,

an American, the Americans, a Greek, a Lutheran, a Stoic,
the Asiatics, Medes and Persians.

An adjective denoting country or race also denotes the language of that country or race: thus,

English is our mother-tongue; He reads Chinese.

But most adjectives denoting nationality and ending in a hiss-sound are used as nouns signifying persons in the plural meaning only: such adjectives also form compounds with *man*: thus, Exceptions for euphony.

the English, an Englishman; the Dutch, the Dutchmen;

Unlike classes (1) and (2), which are examples of partial conversion (85), those under (3) (excepting the sub-class ending in a hiss-sound), having been fully converted, often form plurals like ordinary nouns.

275. Adverbs are sometimes used with the value of nouns: thus, II. Adverbs.

the ups and downs, since *then*, from *abroad*.

III. Infinitives
and gerunds.

276. As we have seen (187 and 190), the infinitive and the gerund are really nouns derived from verbs, and, in all their constructions, they are to be explained as such (193): thus,

To see is to believe; Seeing is believing;
He is tired of running; He likes running;
He wants to leave; He dared not leave.

IV. Any ex-
pression used
as such, with
its meaning.

277. A word of any kind may be used as a noun, when we mean by it, "the word so and so, with the meaning that belongs to it": thus,

Loved is a verb; Without an *if* or a *but*;
When I was young—ah! woful *when*!

Names of letters and figures and so on are like these. Sometimes a phrase or a clause is used in the same way; thus,

My more than father; *A ne'er do well*;
The saddest of words are, "It might have been."

PHRASES.

V. Various
phrases.

278. Phrases may also be used as nouns: thus,

To have attempted this would have been folly;
After *having gone so far*, why stop?
At his office is the best place to see him;
The cat jumped from *under the sofa*.

CLAUSES.

VI. Various
noun-clauses.

279. A clause, used with the value of a noun, is called a noun-clause (43), and its constructions correspond to those of the noun. It may be used:

(1). Subject.

(1). As subject of a verb:

What they say is not to the point;
Whether you go or stay is of little account;
That he is already gone disappoints us.

(2). Obj.
of verb.

(2). As object of a verb:

I know not what I shall do; They saw that she was ill;
We considered whether it would answer;
He showed me where it was; He asked me if it was so;
I was taught that such conduct was dishonest.

(3). Subj. or
compl. of
inf. to be.

(3). As subject or complement of an infinitive. generally, *to be*: thus,

Do you believe what he says to be untrue?
I believe his wish to be that you should go;
I intend what I am giving to satisfy you;
I expect it to prove what is needed.

(4). As predicate noun :

(4). Pred.
noun.

The trouble is that he is too rash ;
Our hope is that he will yield to necessity.

(5). In apposition :

(5). In
apposition.

The fact that it was done by him is apparent ;
His letter is to the purport that he will soon arrive ;
He denied the statement that he had failed.

In older English the subject of a subordinate noun-clause is sometimes anticipated by a noun or a pronoun, standing as the direct object of the principal verb, the subordinate clause becoming a second object thereto, in a relation to the direct object, resembling that of apposition : thus, in the Authorized Version of the Bible,

Archaic
construction.

Consider *the lilies* of the field, how *they* grow ;
I see *your father's face*, that *it* is not toward me ;

and in Shakespeare,

Conceal *me* what *I* am ;
Did'st thou not mark *the king*, what words *he* spake ?

where the meaning is

Consider how the lilies of the field grow,
and so on.

The subordinate clause, may, however, be valued as an adverb (148), as if the meaning of the sentence were

Consider the lilies in respect to their growth ;
and so on ; in which case the construction would fall under (9) below.

(6). As object of a preposition :

(6). Obj. of
preposition.

He traded with what capital he had ;
You err in that you think so ;
Has he any notion of why I did so ?
She is doing well except that she cannot sleep ;
He says nothing but what is true.

Noun-clauses after *but* present some difficulties. Examples

Noun-clauses
after *but*.

I cannot believe *but* that you were there ;
We did not know *but* that he would come ;
We would have done so *but* that our means failed.

But (that is *by-out* ; O.E. *bi*, "close to," and *utan* "outside") originally meant "close to the outside of," "without," "except," "leaving out," "to the contrary of,"

one of which meanings, or one akin thereto, it has in this and similar constructions. Thus, the examples given are equivalent to

I cannot believe *to the contrary* of your having been there ;
 We did not know *to the contrary* of the possibility of his coming ;
 We would have done so, *leaving out* (i.e., had it not been for) the failure of our means.

(7). Obj. of
interjection.

(7). As the so-called object of an interjection (53 and 155) :

O that he were here ;

(8). Nom.
absolute.

(8). Occasionally, as a nominative absolute :

We bought some more, what we had not proving sufficient ;
 Granted that he did so, what are you going to do ?
 That he did so being conceded, are you any better off ?

(9). Adj. or
adv. with
or without
preposition.

(9). As an adjective or an adverb :

(a). A noun-clause, introduced by *that* (or, rarely, *lest*), or without any connective owing to the omission of *that*, is often added directly, with the value of an adverb or adjective, to a verb or adjective or noun, where a noun would require a preposition to be used as connective: for example,

They insisted that he should stay ;
 We cherish the hope that he will return ;
 There is no need that she should be present ;
 We are quite sorry that it is so ;
 He was afraid lest he should fall ;

while we should say

insisted on his staying ; hope of his return ;
 need of her presence ; sorry for its being so ;

and so on with the rest.

Of the same nature is the construction of the noun-clauses in the following :

I am undecided whether I should go or stay ;
 I don't care who did it ; why he did it ; when he did it ; etc.

Analogous to
the adverbial
objective.

This construction is most analogous to that of the adverbial objective (145-148), or noun made adjunct to some other word without any sign of the relation between them being expressed.

(b). Another similar case of a noun-clause used adverbially without a preposition is seen in such a sentence as Similar constructions.

In whatever state I am, I am always content.

The complete expression is

Whatever state I am in, I am always content *with*;

or representing *whatever state* by its equivalent with a conjunctive pronoun,

I am always content with *any state in which* I am.

Then putting in the principal clause a pronoun to suit the subordinate clause, we have

In whatever state I am, I am always content with *it*;

and the omission of the adverb-phrase *with it* gives the form as first stated.

In like manner,

However he may struggle, he cannot escape;

Wherever he may be, he will be happy;

Whoever may say it, I shall not believe it;

are equivalent to

He cannot escape *by any way in which* he may struggle;

He will be happy *in any place in which* he may be;

I shall not believe it *from any person who* may say it;

with the connectives *by*, *in*, and *from* expressed.

280. On the other hand, not a few words which were formerly prepositions governing noun-clauses introduced by *that* have now come to be used, generally or always, directly as conjunctions, by the omission of *that*: for example, A prep., becomes a conj. by omission of *that*.

after he had gone; *until* he shall arrive; *except* he confess it; while we may also say,

after that he had gone, etc.

But, also, originally a preposition has a variety of constructions, in some being a preposition followed by *that*, (279 [6]), and in others by its omission becoming a co-ordinating conjunction (41 [2]), or, as we shall see later, the equivalent of a conjunctive pronoun with a negative: thus, for example, But, also negative conjunctive

There is no one *but* believes it;
that is

There is no one *who* does *not* believe it.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

ASSERTIVE SENTENCES.

281. The thought expressed in an assertive sentence may be reported

(1). Direct narration.

(1). As coming *directly* from the speaker; thus,

He said: "I go if I wish"; "She has gone," he replied.

The construction of the sentences in inverted commas is called *direct* and the form of the narration is also called *direct*.

Construction unchanged.

Here no change of construction has taken place: the speaker's words are simply quoted. All such expressions, whether they consist of one sentence, as above, or of more—as, for instance, in the report of a speech—are the object of a verb of stating, asking, or commanding (48); being used, like the expressions in par. 277, in the sense of "the expression so and so, with the meaning that belongs to it."

(2). Indirect narration.

(2). As coming *indirectly* from the speaker: thus

He says he goes if he wishes; He says that she has gone;

the construction being known as *indirect*, or *oblique*, and the form as *indirect*, or *oblique*, narration.

Construction changed.

Here, however, a change of construction has taken place, and the narrated sentences have become subordinate noun-clauses.

These direct and indirect constructions are, therefore, different, although, by the omission of *that*, they may seem to be the same: for a speaker who has said, for instance, "She is going," may be reported thus:

He says "She is going"; and He says she is going.

282. And, further, as the sentences

I go if I wish; She has gone;

become, when expressed indirectly,

He says (has said, or will say) that he goes if he wishes;
that she has gone;

He said (or had said) that he went if he wished;
that she had gone;

these examples show

(1). That indirect assertions are usually introduced by *that*. In colloquial English, however, the conjunction is generally omitted.

(2). That a primary tense in the subordinate clause in indirect narration appears to be affected by the tense of the verb on which this clause depends; changing from the primary tense of the direct form to an historical tense, if the tense of the verb in the governing clause is historical; but remaining unchanged if the tense in the governing clause is primary. This construction is known as the *sequence of tenses*. The change in the tense is, however, really due to the fact that in English we look at both the statement in the principal clause and that in the subordinate clause, from the same standpoint of time.

Peculiarities
of subord.
clauses.
Sequence
of tenses.

Sometimes, however, contrary to the rule for the sequence of tenses, the primary tense of the direct construction is retained in the subordinate clause:

Exceptions
to the rule.

(1). When greater vividness is aimed at: thus,

He answered that the people *have* fled;

(2). When the dependent clause states something that is always true: thus,

Galileo maintained that the earth *is* round.

INTERROGATIVE AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

283. As in the case of assertive sentences, questions or commands may be expressed as coming indirectly from the speaker thereof; and, when thus expressed, they exhibit a different construction, except when there is an interrogative word and the order is the same as in the assertive sentence: thus,

Construction
generally
different.

What do you say? Has he gone? Who has gone?

Make him go; Thou shalt go; God bless you!

become, when expressed indirectly,

He asks (has asked, or will ask) what you say; whether (or if) he has gone; who has gone;

He asked (or had asked) what you said; whether (or if) he had gone; who had gone;

He commands, etc., that you make him go, or you to make him go; that thou shalt go, or thee to go;

He commanded, etc., that you (should) make him go, or you to make him go; that thou shouldst go, or thee to go;

He prays that God may bless you, or God to bless you;

He prayed that God might bless you, or God to bless you.

These examples show

(1). That indirect questions are introduced by *whether*, or *if*, if there is no interrogative word in the direct construction; and that indirect commands, when expressed in the

Peculiarities
of con-
structions.

form of a subordinate clause, are introduced by *that*, and that they may also be expressed by an infinitive phrase with its subject, or by a direct and an indirect objective.

(2). That the verbs in the subordinate clauses follow the rule for the sequence of tenses already given for assertive sentences in indirect narration.

Exceptional constructions.

Sometimes, however, a combination of the direct and indirect constructions is used in questions: thus,

Paul whispered to Florence, as she wrapped him up
before the door was opened: Did she hear them?
Would she ever forget it?

when the regular forms would be, in direct narration,

“Do you hear them?” “Will you ever forget it?”

or, in indirect,

Paul asked Florence, in a whisper, . . . if she
heard them, and if she would ever forget it.

USES OF *SHALL* AND *WILL*.

General rules followed. Usage of direct, sometimes retained.

284. When the subject of *shall* or *will* in the direct form is changed in the indirect, the general rules for the use of these auxiliaries are followed (210 and 213). But sometimes the form of auxiliary used in the direct is retained; thus, for example, we may say

You say you *shall* go; He says I *will* go;
He writes me that he *shall* be absent;
He asked Tom if he *should* be at home to-morrow;

if the reported speaker said

I *shall* go; You *will* go; I *shall* be absent;
Tom, *shall* you be at home to-morrow?

Cases of ambiguity.

The change to indirect in either way would sometimes produce ambiguity; as, for instance, in

- (1). You say you *will* go; He writes me that I *shall*
be appointed;
- (2). You said you *would* go; He wrote me that I *should*
be appointed;

where the reported speakers may have used in (1) either *shall* or *will*, and in (2) *shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would*.

How avoided.

It is better, in such cases, to use the direct form, although emphasis in speaking or italics in printing are occasionally used when these would be sufficient and when the context does not make the meaning clear.

IX. PRONOUNS.

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

285. According to the differences of use and meaning, pronouns are classified as follows:

(1). *personal*; (2). *demonstrative*; (3). *interrogative*; (4). *conjunctive*; (5). *indefinite*.

There are so few pronouns of each class, and their uses are so peculiar, that we mention and describe them all—as is not the case with any other part of speech.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

286. The personal pronouns are so called because they especially mark differences of person (98). The inflection of these pronouns is irregular; the plurals are quite different words from the singulars; they have no real possessive cases; and, in one, the objective is quite a different word from the nominative. General characteristics.

As the person speaking and the person spoken to are usually present to each other, gender distinctions are unnecessary in the case of these pronouns, and they have consequently not been developed. No gender forms.

287. The pronouns of the first and second persons, with all their forms, are these: Declension.

	FIRST PERSON		SECOND PERSON	
	sing.	plural.	sing.	plural.
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we	(thou)	you (ye),
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us	(thee)	you

The forms *my*, *mine*, and *our*, *ours*; *thy*, *thine*, and *your*, *yours*, which are sometimes valued as possessive cases, are valued in this grammar as pronominal adjectives, and will be considered later.

288. The plural forms of the first personal pronoun signify the speaker himself, together with one or more Uses of personal pronouns.

(1). *we, us;*
our, ours.

others—any group or company of whom the speaker is one: thus,

We (human beings) have speech, and *they* (other animals) have not;

We (I and my companions) took a long walk together;

We (Canadians) live in the Western Hemisphere;

We (*you* and *I*) see each other.

In certain styles, *we, us*, and the pronominal adjectives *our, ours*, are used by a single speaker of himself. So, especially by a sovereign; as

We, Victoria, Queen of England;

also, by a writer, an editor, or a contributor to a periodical, who speaks as if he represented the whole body of people concerned in editing or contributing to the publication for which he writes.

History of
I and *me*.

289. The modern *I* is a weakened form of the O.E. *ic* (later *ich*); and *me*, a dative, from another stem, replaced the O.E. accusative *mec*. In the middle of the sixteenth century, the distinction between the forms *I* and *me* broke down, and, as in Shakespeare, they are often interchanged. *Me* is still a dative, not only in the indirect objective, but in the obsolete "*methinks*," "*meseems*," and "*melists*," in "*woe is me*," and in the *ethical* dative, or dative of interest (*ethical* is from the Gr. *ethos*, which here means "*interest*"), in Shakespeare's

Me, as an
ethical dative.

"Knock *me* at this gate and rap *me* well;"

See how this river comes *me* cranking in,
And cuts *me*, from the best of all my land.
A huge half-moon.

In the Elizabethan period this ethical dative was often a mere expletive, its value having become weakened.

(2). *thou,*
thee;
you, ye.

290. The singular of the second person, *thou, thee*, is now confined to certain higher and more solemn or more impassioned uses, especially in prayer and in poetry: thus,

O *thou* Shepherd of Israel, that did'st comfort thy people;
Thou lovest, but ne'er knew love's sad satiety.

The plural form *ye*, we use in much the same way: thus,

O night and darkness, *ye* are wondrous strong!
Nor you, *ye* proud, impute to these the fault.

You, the common plural of the second person, signifies a number of persons addressed, or one or more such along with others who are regarded as being in one company with them: thus,

You (whom I speak to) must listen to me;
You (Germans) are a nation of scholars.

You has become the common pronoun of address, both nominative and objective, whether we speak to one person or to more than one. Being originally a plural pronoun, it takes, when subject, the verb in the plural, even though only one person is addressed.

Like *me*, *you* was, in Elizabethan English, used as an ethical dative: thus, in Shakespeare, *You*, as an ethical dative.

And 'a would manage *you* his piece thus, and come *you* in, and come *you* out.

Thou and *you* (or *ye*) are often, like nouns, used in the nominative of address, in calling to persons or things addressed: thus, for example, *Thou, you, ye*, in nom. of address.

O *thou* to whom all creatures bow,
 How mighty is thy name!

You, James, come here!

291. Through Middle and Early Modern English, *ye* was the nom.; and *you*, the dat. and acc.—a distinction which is maintained in the authorized version of the Bible: thus, History of *thou, thee*; *you, ye*.

Ye have not chosen me, but I have chosen *you*.

In the Elizabethan period, however, we often find these words interchanged: thus, in Shakespeare,

I do beseech *ye*, if *you* bear me hard.

Later *you* became established as both nominative and objective, and *ye* became archaic and poetic.

During the Mid. Eng. period, *ye* and *you* began to be used for *thou* and *thee* in ceremonious address. The singular, however, remained among the common people, and was used to some extent among the upper classes towards friends, by superiors to inferiors, and in contempt or anger towards strangers. Later, the plural was used among friends, and finally towards inferiors; and the singular, having become archaic, was naturally used by poets. Probably this use of the plural originally implied

Explanation
of singular
reference
of *you* :

And of its
displace-
ment of *ye*.

that the person addressed was of more importance than a mere individual. It may also have been felt to be a less direct mode of address than the singular; just as, in Modern German, the third person plural is used where we use the second, and, in our formal notes of invitation, the third person is used for both the first and the second. The displacement of *ye* by *you* is probably due to the assimilation of sound produced by the absence of sentence-stress on *ye* and *you* in rapid speech. As has been pointed out (289), the forms *I* and *me* were similarly confounded; but this must be attributed to our general impatience of inflectional distinctions (111), and to the analogy of nouns which, after inflections had been dropped, had the same form for both nominative and objective.

(3). Demon-
strative use
of personal
pronouns.

292. The personal pronouns have a use which resembles that of a demonstrative adjective: thus, for example, in

We girls went to the woods yesterday;
You boys, attend to your work! *You men* are sure to fail;
Nor you, *ye* proud (adj. as noun) impute, etc.

the pronouns give the nouns a personal meaning: the nouns are here not simply appositives to the pronouns.

THE DEMONSTRATIVE OF THE THIRD PERSON.

General char-
acteristics.

293. The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it* and *they*, which are used for anything spoken of, are, strictly speaking, demonstrative in function (*demonstrative* means "pointing out") and are best described as *demonstrative* pronouns of the *third person*. The real nature of these pronouns is more clearly seen in early Modern English; thus, in Shakespeare,

What is *he* at the gate? *They* of France;
also, at present, in formal statements: thus,

He who is not for me is against me.

Declension.

294. The complete declension of the pronoun is as follows:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.	
<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Obj.</i>	him	her	it	them

As in the case of *my*, *mine*, etc., the forms *his*, *her*, *hers*, *its*, *their*, and *theirs* are here valued as nominal adjectives.

295. The *m* in *him* and *them* (now both dir. and indir. obj.) was an O.E. dat. ending; so, too, the *r* in the obj. *her*. The *t* in *it*, O.E. *hit* (like the *t* in *what* and *that*, and the Latin *d* in *quo-d*, *illu-d*, etc.), was once a neuter ending. *She* is from *séo*, the fem. of the demonstrative (thus, masc. *se*, fem. *séo*, neut. *thæt*) and replaced *héo* (or *hi*), which was the fem. of *he*, (thus, masc. *he*, fem. *heo*, neut. *hit*) and from which *her* has been formed. *They* and *them* were once the plural of the O.E. demonstrative *thæt*. In the early part of the sixteenth century we find *hem* (hence, probably, the mod. 'em) as if for *them*, but really representing the O.E. *him* or *heom*, which the demonstrative *them* displaced.

History of *he*,
she, *it*, etc.

296. The demonstrative of the third person has three gender forms for the singular, but we make no distinctions in the plural, because a number of persons may include both sexes. By the use of *he* and *she* in the singular, we mark a distinction of sex:

Distinctions
of sex.

he, *she*.

(1). In those creatures which evidently have sex, or in which the difference of sex is an important matter, and especially in human beings; and

(2). Sometimes in *personified* objects—that is, in those which, though we know they are not persons, we yet talk about as if they possessed sex. Thus, we speak of the sun as *he*, and of the moon, or the earth, or a ship, as *she*.

297. The general principles that govern personification are as follows:

Principles
of Personi-
fication.

(1). Things remarkable for, or associated with the notion of, strength, violence, superiority, majesty, or sublimity, are regarded as male; for example,

death, war, the sun, the ocean, winter, anger, heaven.

(2). Things which possess gentleness, beauty and grace, or productiveness, or which are the objects of affection or care, are regarded as female; for example,

night, nature, the earth, spring, hope, virtue, poetry, art.

(3). Classical mythology has also influenced our personifications; thus, as in the classics, Love and Time are regarded as male, and Justice and Discord as female. So, too, the planets Jupiter and Saturn are male, and Venus and Vesta, female.

It, used of living objects; *he* and *she*, without reference to sex.

298. On the other hand, some objects that have sex, as the lower animals, are usually denoted by *it*, their sex not being important enough to be noticed. Or, in some cases, we use *he* and *she* of them—as *he* of the dog, and *she* of the cat—without any particular reference to the sex, but because their qualities in general appear to us to justify the use of these pronouns. *It* is regularly used as corresponding pronoun to *child*, *baby*, and other such words, because they imply an overlooking of the sex of the beings signified by them. So, too, *it* is sometimes used for another pronoun to express affection or contempt: thus,

What a nice little man *it* is ! What a fool *it* is !

He for both male and female.

And, in the case of human beings, the masculine singular is used to represent both the male and the female : thus,

Each of the brothers and sisters knows *he* has a share ;
Each of the family knows *he* owns the property.

Both *he* and *she* in some constructions.

Sometimes, however, and especially when there is a marked reference to a female, both forms of the pronoun are used : so, too, in the case of the pronominal adjective : thus,

John and his sister are here ; each knows that *he* or *she* will receive the property ; either will do *his* or *her* duty.

Colloquial use of *they* in such constructions.

But the awkwardness of this form of sentence usually leads to its reconstruction. In colloquial English *they* is often used as a neuter demonstrative in this construction : thus, for example,

Nobody knows what *it* is to lose a friend till *they* have lost him ;
I do not mean that I think anyone to blame for taking
due care of *their* health.

But, though this usage would be convenient, it is not reputable and national (13).

Special uses of *it*:

299. Besides its ordinary use to represent something without sex, spoken of, and its special use to represent an object with sex (298), *it* has a variety of other special uses in which its usual force is weakened. The more important of these are as follows:

(1). As Representative Subject.

(1). *It* very often stands as subject of a verb to represent a phrase or a clause which is the real subject, and which is then put after the verb : thus,

It is not difficult to die ; *It* is doubtful whether he will come ;
that is,

To die is not difficult ; Whether he will come is doubtful.

So, too, in interrogative sentences ;

When was *it* that he went ? Is *it* true that he has gone ?
that is,

When was that he went (that is, his going) ? etc.

As used in all the foregoing sentences, *it* is called the *grammatical*, or *representative*, subject ; and the word or the phrase or the clause which it represents, is called the *logical* subject ; that is, the subject "according to the logic, or real meaning, of the sentence." Logical subject.

The effect of this idiom is to emphasize the real subject, by putting it at the end of the sentence, out of its usual position. (*Idiom* here means "form of expression peculiar to the language." For the other meaning of idiom, see par. 233.) An "Idiom."

(2). In the same way it stands as the *representative* object of a verb : thus, (2). As Representative Object.

I think *it* wrong to do so ;
I think *it* wrong that he has done so ;

that is,

I think *to do so* wrong ;
I think *that he has done so* wrong.

(3). And, as we have already seen (160), it stands as *impersonal* subject of a verb ; thus, (3). As Impersonal Subject.

It came to blows between them ; Is *it* far to Montreal ?

Of the same nature is the use of *it* in the obsolete expressions,

It repents, shames, pities, pains me ;

the intention here being to express feelings which we do not control.

Such impersonal constructions were very common in older English ; thus, in Shakespeare, we find Common in older English.

It yearns me not ; *It* likes us well ;

where Modern English uses personal subjects, owing to the continual tendency to definiteness shown by English and other progressive languages.

(4). Impersonal Object.

(4). Sometimes, also, it stands as *impersonal* object of a verb or a preposition; that is, it does not signify any real object: thus,

They footed *it* through the streets; He lorded *it* over them;
Come and trip *it* as we go; Foot *it* fealty here and there;
We modern converts have a better time of *it*.

As used after the verbs, *it* here corresponds to the cognate objective (125[2]), of which it is a weakened representative.

(5). Indefinite Subject.

(5). It is used *indefinitely* for "the person," or "the one," in such sentences as

In this 't is God directs; in that, 't is man;
Art thou not *it* that hath cut Rahab, and wounded the dragon?

This use of *it* is called *indefinite*.

THE POSSESSIVES OF THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD PERSONS.

History of
my, thy,
our, etc.

300. The O. E. genitives of *ic*, "I," and *thú*, "thou," have gone entirely out of use. The modern *my, our, thy, your* are derived from the O. E. declinable pronominal adjectives *min*, "my"; *úre*, "our"; *thin*, "thy"; *éower*, "your," which were derived from and replaced the O. E. genitives. The O. E. pronominal adjectives *his*, "his, its"; *hire*, "her"; *hira, hiera*, "their," were indeclinable; but in Mid. Eng. *his* followed the analogy of *min*, etc., and was partly declined. For this reason, chiefly, the possessives are now treated as pronominal adjectives. There are, however, two constructions of these words in which they are now really possessive cases in function, although we have no historical grounds for supposing that these forms are survivals of the old genitives:

Why valued
as adjectives.
Still possessive cases
in two constructions.

(1). In early Modern English and still in poetry we find such constructions as

Let grief and sorrow still embrace *his* heart
That doth not wish thee joy;

Tell her 't is all *our* ways; it runs in the family;

in which "*his* heart" is the equivalent of "the heart of *him*," and "all *our* ways," of "the ways of *all* of us."

So, too, in colloquial English of the present day, we find such sentences as,

Having heard the noise, *my* attention was aroused;
in which "*my* attention" is the equivalent of "the attention

of me." But such constructions, though very common, are not now used by careful writers and speakers.

(2). The falsely partitive possessive phrase:

of mine, of ours, of thine, of yours, of his, of its; and so on, in which the pronoun is analogous to the possessive case of the noun (268) in

a book of *John's*; the lovely face of my *daughter's*.

As the last example shows, these constructions, like those of the noun, are often illogical. They have, however, existed since the Middle English period and have long been an established idiom.

301. In Old English, to give definiteness to a noun with a possessive adjective, a definite adjective was added: thus, the literal meaning of *dótor mín séo dýreste*, the O. E. for "my dearest daughter," was "daughter mine, the dearest." In Mid. Eng. the possessive adjective itself became definite and the definite adjective was dropped.

Origin of
the idiom
of *mine*, etc.

The necessity, however, still existed for expressing such a meaning as "a book belonging to me" when possession alone was meant and there was no reference to the number of books. For this, such phrases as "a book of mine" came into use. At first, this may have been "a book of me"; but the modern idiom became established, probably on the analogy of real partitive expressions and the influence of the O. E. construction given above. The construction, "a book of mine"—at first, pronominal and indefinite—became extended to definite expressions such as "this book of mine," and, by analogy, to nouns (268).

Other explanations of this peculiar idiom are (1) that we have here a mixture of the O. E. and the French possessive, and (2) that the double possessive is appositive (265 [3]); but these two explanations are purely theoretical: there is some historical foundation for the one given above.

Other
explanations.

COMPOUND PRONOUNS OF THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD PERSONS.

302. The words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plur.) are added to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, forming a class of *compound* pronouns of the *first*, *second*, and *third persons*, which have two principal uses:

(1). To mark *emphasis*, usually along with a noun or another pronoun: thus,

I myself or *me myself*; none but *herself*;
He (or, *James*) was *himself* present.

Chief uses:
(1). Em-
phatic.

Thus used, they are called *emphatic* personal pronouns. And these compounds have so far assumed the character of emphatic personal pronouns that *myself* and *thyself* are occasionally found in the more elevated style, without any preceding *I* and *thou*, as subjects of the verb in the first and the second person: thus,

Myself am Naples; *Thyself* art God.

(2). Reflexive. (2). As a *reflexive* object of a verb or a preposition (158): thus,

I dress *myself*; You will hurt *yourself* (or *yourselves*);
He is anxious about *himself*; He is on good terms with *himself*.

Thus used, they are called *reflexive* personal pronouns. *Ourself* and *yourself* denote a single person; *ourselves* and *yourselves*, more than one.

Simple
pronoun used
reflexively.

So, too, the simple pronoun is sometimes used reflexively in old-style literature (125 [1]); thus,

She went and sat *her* down over against him;
I do repent *me*; He laid *him* down; Stand *thee* close then.

History of
compounds
of *self*.

303. The O. E., *self* ("self") was an adjective: thus, *Ic self*, "I (my)self"; *min selfes*, "of me (my)self," etc.; and the dative case of a pronoun, which was sometimes inserted between *self* and the nom. of the pronoun, gave the emphatic reflexive: thus,

Ic mé self, *thú thé self*, *hé him self*, *wé ús selfe*,
ye éow selfe, *hi him selfe*.

In the course of time, while *self* was used with the dative of pronouns of the third person (thus, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*), in the case of the other personal pronouns, it was treated as a noun modified by a possessive adjective (thus, *me self* and *the self* became *mi self* and *thi self*; that is *myself* and *thyself*), and, by analogy *us self* and *you self*, became *ourself* and *yourself*. During the first half of the sixteenth century when *self* was valued as a noun (thus for example, "a man's better *self*") and the origin of its compounds was forgotten, the plurals conformed to the general rule for the formation of noun-plurals in *-lf* (248 [1]).

Emphatic and
reflexive
phrases
with *own*.

304. Besides the forms under par. 302, (1) and (2) we find *own* (which is etymologically *ágen*, the p.p. of the O. E. *ágan*, "to possess" [185]), in the emphatic use, or in a use which is both emphatic and reflective: thus,

He came unto *his own* and *his own* received him not.

And sometimes *self* is added for greater emphasis:

I will do it *my own self*; Who *his own self* bare our sins.

OTHER DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

305. The other demonstrative pronouns (besides *he, she, it*, etc.,) are

Sing. *this* and *that*; pl. *these* and *those*;

so and *such* are also sometimes demonstrative, but they have a weaker force.

There were two demonstrative pronouns in Old English, both being fully declined; masc. *se*, with neut. *thæt* and pl. *thá*; and *thes* with neut. *this* and pl. *thás*: so that *that* and *this* were originally neuter. In Middle English, *this* had another pl., *thise* and *thes*, the latter of which gave the Mod. pl. *these*; while the pl. of *that* was supplied by *thás*, the pl. of *this*, owing to confusion with *thá*.

History of
this and *that*.

306. (1). When contrasted, *this* and *these* are used to mean something nearer; *that* and *those*, something farther off: thus,

Uses:
(1). When
contrasted.

This is right; *that* is wrong; Take *this* and give me *that*;

Consequently, *this* is often equivalent to "the latter" and *that* to "the former": thus,

Reason raise o'er instinct as you can,
In *this*, 'tis God directs; in *that*, 'tis man.

This is also found contrasted with *the other* and even with itself; in the latter case, both objects being regarded as near the speaker and being distinguished by some gesture: thus,

This is good; *the other* is bad;
This book is well bound, but *this* one needs rebinding.

(2). When used alone, *this* generally implies nearness to the speaker or to something just stated or implied; *that*, remoteness; often, however, they may be used indifferently. Examples are

(2). When
separate.

See *this* (or *that*); A deed so fell as *that* (or *this*);
To denounce dishonor; *that* (or *this*) was his purpose;
He rides well; *that* is, he has a good seat;
He took no care of his life; he knew *this* (or *that*) to be safe;
To be or not to be?—*that* is the question;
He learned *this* at least, to bear up against misfortune.

(3). For the demonstrative of the third person.

(3). *That* and *those* are also much used instead of *it* and *they*, as the words to which the conjunctive pronoun relates. Thus we may say, in the formal or elevated style,

He whom you saw ;

but we must say in all styles,

That (not *It*) which you saw.

In informal present English, however, we prefer, in such constructions, to use *the man* or *the woman*, *the person*, etc., for *he* or *she*. Probably the pronouns are not now felt to have sufficient demonstrative force for such uses.

(4). With a phrase or a clause, for a noun.

(4). *That* and *those* are used, too, in place of a noun or noun-phrase which would otherwise have to be repeated along with a phrase or clause describing it: thus,

My horse (or, my horse and buggy), and *that* (not *it*) of my neighbor ;

Home-made articles and *those* (not *they*) from abroad (or, brought from abroad ; or, which are brought, etc.) ;

when *that* means "the horse," or "the horse and buggy" ; and *those*, "articles."

This very convenient idiom saves disagreeable repetition. Emphasis, however, may require the repetition.

(5). For an emphatic subject.

(5). Sometimes *these* is used to repeat emphatically the notion expressed by the subject (116 [1]): thus,

Self-respect, self-control, courage and honesty—*these* make a man great.

Nature and uses of *so* and *such*.

307. *So* (O.E. *swá*), which is usually an adverb, is used as a demonstrative pronoun in such sentences as

He said *so* ; He told me *so* ;

If you think me wrong, say *so* ;

If you think that I am wrong, say *so* ;

in which *so* points definitely to something said before.

Such may also be valued as a demonstrative in the nominative and objective, though it is often included among the indefinites, owing to its meaning. Examples of its use as a pronoun are

Such as you cannot succeed ; I cannot act for *such* as he.

Etymologically *such* (O. E. *swilc*, Goth. *swa-leiks*) is equivalent to *so-like*, thus accounting for the tendency to form the compound *such-like*. It was originally followed by *which* (*which* means "who-like" or "what-like" [309]), and we find this construction in older English: thus, in Shakespeare,

Derivation
of *such*.

Once followed
by *which*.

There rooted between them *such* an affection *which* cannot
choose but branch now;

but present usage has established *as*.

Now by *as*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

308. The Interrogative Pronouns are *who*, *what*, and *which*. Their office is to ask a question, or to mark an interrogative sentence; and their usual place is as near as possible to the beginning of the sentence: thus,

General char-
acteristics.

Who comes here? *What* does he want?

Which of us does he seek? *Whom* are you looking for?

Whether, once an interrogative pronoun, is not now so used. It is an archaic word for "which one of two," or for *which*, when the reference is to two: thus,

Whether is greater, the gift or the altar?

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?

309. *Who* is used, without any change of form, both as singular and as plural.

Declension.

It has, however, three case-forms: nom., *who*; poss., *whose*; obj., *whom*.

Which and *what* are uninflected, and are used only as nominatives and objectives; *which* is either singular or plural; *what* is only singular.

Which < O. E. *hwilc* < *hwālic* (by mut.); so that it means "who-like" or "what-like." It once related to persons, and has displaced the old-fashioned *whether*.

Origin of
the inter-
rogatives.

What was originally the neuter of *who* (*t* being the neuter suffix, as in *i-t*).

Whose < the O. E. gen. *hwæs*, later *whás*; the *-se* being a possessive inflection. It was not declined like an adjective in Old English and may now be valued as a possessive case;

but some scholars value it as an adjective, on the analogy of the possessive pronominal adjectives. The *-m* in *whom* (O.E. *hwám*) is a dative inflection.

Uses:
who and
what.

which.

310. Between *who* and *what* we make a distinction different from that we make anywhere else in the language: *who* (with *whose* and *whom*) is used of persons, human beings; *what* is used of everything else, whether living creatures or inanimate things; *which* is used of both persons and things. *Which* differs from both *who* and *what* in being *selective*: that is, it implies a certain known number or body of individuals, from among whom the right one is to be selected; whereas *who* and *what* are indefinite. Thus, if we say, "*Who* did it?" or "*What* did it?" we do not appear to know anything about the agent; but "*Which* did it?" implies that we know certain persons or things, one or another of which must have been the agent.

Adj. uses
of *what*
and *which*.
Exclamatory
interrogatives.

Who and its cases are pronouns only; *what* and *which* are also "Interrogative adjectives." *Who* and *what* (and other interrogative words) are used also in an exclamatory sense: thus, for example,

Who would have thought so? *What*! has he gone already?

Adverbial
uses of *what*.

In older English *what* is sometimes used adverbially in the sense of *why*: thus,

What need we wine when we have Nilus to drink of?

Sometimes even now, in the less formal style, we find a similar usage: thus,

What (= "In what respect") better will that make it?
What (= "Partly") with one thing and *what* (= "partly")
with another, I was kept busy all the time.

CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

311. *That*, originally demonstrative, and *who*, *what*, and *which*, originally interrogative, are also used in a way that is called "conjunctive" (or "relative"); and, when so used, they are known as *conjunctive* (or *relative*) pronouns, or, simply, *conjunctives* (or *relatives*).

History of
the O. E.
conjunctives.

312. In Old English, the demonstratives, *se*, *séo*, *that* (305), were used as conjunctives alone; or with *the* (itself a

weakened demonstrative), which acted like a suffix, emphasizing the defining clause: thus,

<i>Thæt wæs deáthes beám,</i>	<i>That was death's tree,</i>
<i>se bær bitres fela;</i>	<i>that bare bitterness much;</i>
<i>Se the brýd hæfth,</i>	<i>That has the bride,</i>
<i>Se is brýdguma,</i>	<i>that is the bridegroom.</i>

So that the clauses were at first co-ordinate.

Later, the interrogatives were used: they became first indefinite; as, for example, in Shakespeare,

He doth nothing but frown, as *who* (= "as if *one*") should say, "If you will not have me, choose."

Generalizing suffixes (*so*, *some*, etc.) were then added. These gradually became archaic, leaving *who*, *which* and *what* with the conjunctive value.

That was the usual conjunctive of Middle and Early Modern English. Even now, indeed, in colloquial English, when a conjunctive is used, *that* is preferred to *who* or *which*. *Who* and *which*, however, are common in literature. Even in Shakespeare's time, the modern use of *who* and *which* was not settled. Since then a struggle has been going on between *that*, and *who*, and *which*.

The modern struggle between *that*, and *who* and *which*.

DEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES.

313. *Who*, *which*, and *that* refer *definitely* (and hence they are called *definite conjunctives*) to a noun or another pronoun in the same sentence; that other, as it generally stands first, is called the *antecedent* (that is "one gone before"); and the conjunctive and its antecedent are said to be *correlative*. But this relation is of a peculiar kind. The conjunctive introduces a separate clause, and joins that clause adjectively to the antecedent in the way of a limitation or description (23), with a variety of logical values which we will take up when we discuss the adjective clause. Examples are

Definitions of conjunctive, antecedent, correlative

The man *that* was sick is now well;
 The sun *which* shines above is golden;
 I notified the constable, *who* arrested him at once;
 He struck me *who* had done so much for him.
 Soldiers *who* fight bravely die fearlessly;
 Can I believe *his* love will lasting prove,
Who has no reverence for the God I love (300[1]).

"Conjunctive" and "Relative."

Who, which, and that, differ from other pronouns in joining, like a conjunction, a clause to a word which the clause modifies. The term "conjunctive" is, therefore, more truly descriptive of them than "relative"; for all pronouns, being relational words, may be described as "relative."

Conjunction before the conjunctive.

314. As the conjunctive itself is a connecting word, a conjunction should not precede it unless to connect the conjunctive clause co-ordinately with another conjunctive clause: thus, in

This was a gentleman, once a great favorite of M. le Comte,
and in whom I myself was not a little interested;

we should read

who was once a great favorite, etc.,

or we should reconstruct the sentence.

Conjunctive repeated.

When, too, conjunctive clauses are used co-ordinately, the conjunctives, if expressed with each, should, for the sake of clearness, be the same: thus, in

Christianity is a religion *that* reveals man as the object of
God's love, *and which* commends him to the
unbounded love of his brethren;

either *that* or *which* should be used with both clauses, or the conjunctive in the second subordinate clause should be omitted.

Conjunctive governs the person of the verb.

315. The definite conjunctive, when its antecedent is a pronoun of the first or the second person, shares, as it were, the person of its antecedent. If used as subject, it takes the verb in the corresponding person; and, to prevent ambiguity in this and all its other uses, it should be placed as near its antecedent as possible: thus,

I, who am your friend, *tell* you so;
To thee, who hast thy dwelling here on earth.

And in like manner after a nominative of address: thus,
Dark anthracite, which reddenest on my hearth!

Uses of conjunctives: *who*.

316. *Who* is used only of persons, and is singular and plural. It has the objective *whom* and the possessive *whose*. For example,

The man *who* was (or, The men *who* were) recently with us,
whose character we respected, *whom* we loved, and
with *whom* we shared joys and sorrows,
has (or have) been taken from us.

When not persons, but other creatures or things, *which*.
are meant, the corresponding conjunctive is *which*
(not *what*, as in the interrogative use). Thus,

We have the letter *which* he wrote us;
Branches *which* hang from the tree.

Whose is, however, often used for *of which*, because *whose* for
more convenient and less formal: thus, *of which*.

A tale *whose* lightest word, etc.

Some needlessly disapprove of this, and prefer to
say only *of which*—probably on account of the modern
tendency to restrict to persons, the possessive case of
nouns. *Whose* is, however, often used in this way
by the best writers: thus,

Through the heavy door, *whose* bronze net-work closes the
place of his rest, let us enter.—RUSKIN;

A religion *whose* creed they do not understand, and *whose*
precepts they habitually disobey.—MACAULAY;

This moribund '61, *whose* career of life is just coming to a
terminus.—THACKERAY.

Which is sometimes used descriptively (23) of the *which*,
noun notion contained in the preceding sentence, or *descriptive*,
part of a sentence, being then equivalent to *and this*
or *for this*: thus,

The man was said to be innocent, *which* he was not;

We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, *which* we
cannot do without Divine aid.

Which, now used only of things, or of persons *Older uses*
collectively, formerly applied to individual persons *of which*
also: it was then regarded as more definite than *that*, *and who*.
and less so than *who*, being etymologically “who-
like” or “what-like” (309): thus,

Our Father *which* art in heaven, etc.

In older English, and even now in poetry, *the which* is used *the which*.
for greater definiteness, instead of the simple *which*: for
example, in Byron,

'Twas a foolish quest,

The which to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest.

And, by analogy, we find in older English the same use of *the whom*.
who: thus, for example, in Shakespeare,

Your mistress from *the whom* I see
There's no distinction.

that.

317. *That* is a very general conjunctive; it may be used instead of either *who* or *which*, referring both to persons and to things, and to one or to more than one. For example,

The head *that* wears the crown; Wake! all ye *that* sleep;
Repent the evil *that* you have done.

Construction
with pre-
position.

But *that* as conjunctive does not follow a preposition. We say only, "the man *of whom*," "the town *from which*," and so on; not *of that*, or *from that*.

Yet, if the conjunctive object of a preposition stands apart from it, before the verb, either *that* or one of the other definite conjunctives may be used; thus, either

The book *that* I told you of; OR The book *which* I told you of;
but only

The book *of which* I told you.

Logical
values of
that, and
who and
which.

318. Some scholars hold that only *that* should be used when the adjective clause limits, *who* and *which* being used when we merely describe: thus, for example,

Queen Victoria, *who* is Empress of India;
Clouds, *which* are bodies of vapor;

but

The soldiers *that* were wounded were left;
A cloud *that* lay near the horizon.

But although the distinction would be useful, the best English usage by no means always supports it, so far as *who* and *which* are concerned.

Constructions
in which

There are, however, certain cases in which *that* should be used, and not *who* or *which*:

(1). *that*
should
be used.

(1). When there are two or more antecedents expressing both persons and things. Thus, we use *that*, not *who* or *which*, in

I saw the boy and the dog *that* you pointed out.

(2). When the use of *who* or *which* would leave us in doubt whether the conjunctive clause is limiting or merely descriptive: thus, in

I gave it to my brother, *who* has left town;
we should use *that* for *who*, if we wish to define *brother* by the conjunctive clause.

(3). After *all*, *only*, *who*, and the superlative degree of an adjective: thus,

This is all (or, all the money) *that* I can give you;

It was the only thing *that* I could do;

Who *that* knows him would believe so?

He has made the greatest mistake *that* can be made.

Often, however (especially in colloquial English), no conjunctive is used in some of the constructions in (1) and (3); so that the difficulty does not present itself (323).

On the other hand, *that* should not be used if the antecedent is already clearly defined; that is, it should not be used except in limiting clauses. Hence it should not be used after proper names, and such other nouns or noun-phrases as have already a clearly defined reference: thus,

(2). *that* should not be used.

He received it from my father, *who* went away.

In other cases the selection of the conjunctive seems to be at present a question of euphony or taste rather than of grammar. In poetry, however, *that* is often used for *who* in a descriptive clause: thus, in Tennyson,

When I *that* knew him fierce and turbulent,
Refused her to him.

CONDENSED CONJUNCTIVES.

319. *What* differs from *who*, *which*, and *that*, in that it has not usually an antecedent expressed in the sentence, and, therefore, *lacks their definiteness* of reference. In its ordinary use, it implies both antecedent and conjunctive; that is, it is nearly equivalent to *that which* (*that* demonstrative, and *which* conjunctive), and, consequently, it always introduces a noun-clause. It is not used of persons. Examples of its use are

What, a condensed conjunctive.

What is done cannot be undone; I saw *what* he was doing;
He understands *what* you were speaking of.

Thus used, *what* is a *condensed indefinite* conjunctive, or, simply, a *condensed* conjunctive.

What, with
a correlative.

In early modern writers *what* is often used as an ordinary definite conjunctive, on the analogy of the other conjunctives: thus,

That *what* we prize not to the worth;
I fear nothing *what* can be said against me;

and it is still so used in vulgar English.

In poetry and in older prose, the correlative of an emphatic *what* is sometimes expressed if the principal clause follows: thus,

What thou would'st highly, *that* would'st thou holily;
What he hath seen and heard, *that* he testifieth.

That and
who, as
condensed
conjunctives.

In older English we find, notwithstanding its demonstrative origin, *that* also used by analogy, as a condensed conjunctive: thus, for example,

We speak *that* we do know and testify *that* we have seen.

Who also is a condensed conjunctive in such constructions as

Who was the thane yet lives; *Who* steals my purse steals trash;

but, in this use, it is archaic or confined to poetry.

INDEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES AND SUBORDINATE INTERROGATIVES.

Who, *which*,
what, as
Indefinite
Conjunctives
and Subor-
dinate Inter-
rogatives.

320. But there is a use of *who*, *which*, and *what*, chiefly in objective clauses, in which they cannot be regarded as the equivalent of a conjunctive with an antecedent. For example, we do not feel that such sentences as

We well know *who* did it, and *whose* fault it was, and *whom*
people blamed, and *which* of them most deserved blame;
I wonder *what* he meant;

are equivalent to

We well know *the person who* did it, etc.

Who, *which*, and *what*, in such sentences (in which *which* has the selective meaning it has as an interrogative), are known as *simple indefinite* conjunctives. This use resembles that of the same pronouns in indirect questions (283); so that it is often difficult to distinguish the uses (by many, indeed, no distinction is made: the pronouns, in both uses, are valued as interrogatives in subordinate clauses): thus, for example, in

We well know *who* did it, etc.,

the subordinate clauses should be valued as the indirect form of the question :

Who did it, and *whose* fault was it, and *whom* did people blame, and *which* of them most deserved blame ?

if we know that a question has been asked. For distinction's sake, the pronoun in the indirect question is called a *subordinate* interrogative. Subordinate interrogatives.

321. In indirect questions the interrogative pronouns are necessarily indefinite, but not all subordinate clauses containing simple indefinite conjunctives are necessarily indirect questions. This indefinite use of *who*, *which*, and *what* is the direct result of their interrogative origin, and causes their resemblance to the pronouns of the same form in indirect questions. Only those clauses should, of necessity, be treated as indirect questions which are associated with some verb, or noun, of inquiry, and which are, as it were, the echo of an inquiry : thus, for example, Origin of indefinite use.

He *asked* me who did it, whose fault it was, etc. Indirect question.

COMPOUND INDEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES.

322. When the reference of *who*, *which*, *what*, is to be of still more indefinite character than in the simple or the condensed indefinite conjunctives, we use the compounds *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *who-soever*, etc.; and, in old style, *whoso*; the meaning of the conjunctive being generalized by *-ever*, *-soever*, and *so*: thus, Forms in -ever.

Whoever did it ought to be ashamed ;
He will give you *whichever* you want ;
They overthrow *whatever* opposes them.

These words are called *compound indefinite* conjunctives.

Sometimes, in older English (as with *what* [219]), a correlative is expressed : thus, Forms in -soever, -so.

Whoever so doeth, *he* erreth in the belief.

The forms in *-so* and *-soever* are nearly obsolete. They occur frequently in older English and in the Bible: thus,

Whoso diggeth a pit shall fall therein ;
Whosoever sins ye remit, they are remitted.

The addition of *-so* to any other form than *who* is rare; but we find in Spenser,

Whatso the heaven in his wide vault contains.

OMISSION OF THE DEFINITE CONJUNCTIVE.

Conjunctives
not used.

323. The definite conjunctives *who*, *which*, and *that*, when object of a verb, or of a preposition following a verb, or when predicate nominative, are very often not used, the subordinate clause being thus left without any introducing word (46): thus,

The man we saw here is gone;
The horse he rode on was lame;
He is not the man he was;

instead of

The man *that* (or *whom*) we saw; The horse *that* (or *which*) he rode on; etc.

Preposition
or preposition
and conjunctive
not used.

Often also, the preposition, or both preposition and conjunctive are not used: thus,

The time we met you; This is the way he did it;
are used instead of

The time *at which* (or, *that*), etc.; The way *in which* (or *that*), etc.;

where *that* is an adverbial objective.

Conjunctive
subject
not used.

In older English, and sometimes still in the antiquated or solemn style and in poetry, the conjunctive subject is also not used: thus,

I have a grief admits no cure;
'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view.

And in colloquial English the same idiom obtains: thus,

This is the boy can tell us; It's that makes me think so.

Historical
explanation.

324. It is usual to say that the construction described above is due to the omission of *that*. This statement is, however, not quite accurate. In its oldest form, the complex sentence consisted of two sentences put together without any connecting word, thus forming what may be looked upon as a sentence containing two predicates, with one subject grammatically connected with one predicate and logically connected with the other. Thus, for example, in the following survival of this construction in Shakespeare:

In war was never *lion* raged more fierce,
lion is the grammatical subject of *was*, and is loosely

connected with *raged* as its logical subject; and, by an extension of the construction, in

I have a *brother* is condemned to die;
 You are one of *those*
 Would have him wed again;

brother and *those* are objects, while they serve logically as subjects of *is* and *would* respectively. Only by the end of the fifteenth century did the modern more precise construction with the conjunctive pronouns, become fully developed. So that the modern colloquial and vulgar idiom is due to the retention of the oldest and simplest construction, not to the omission of the conjunctive.

OTHER WORDS USED AS DEFINITE CONJUNCTIVES.

325. *As*, which, in Modern English, is generally *as*. an adverb, is sometimes used after *the same*, and especially after *such* and *as*, with the value of a definite conjunctive: thus,

This is the same *as* he has; I love such *as* love me;
 As many *as* were there were slain.

In older English, and still in vulgar English, *as* is used as an ordinary definite conjunctive: thus, in Shakespeare, Older use.

That gentleness *as* I was want to have.

In good writers, sometimes, and often in colloquial English, we find other conjunctives than *as* after *same* (not after *such* or *as*). Used adjectively, *same* is always followed by *as* if the *as*-clause is incomplete; but often by one of the other definite conjunctives if it is complete: thus, Other conjunctives after *same*.

They believe the *same* of all the works of art, *as* of knives, boats, looking-glasses;
 For the *same* sound is in my ears
 Which in those days I heard;

This is the very *same* rogue *who* sold us the spectacles.

Like the other conjunctives, *as* may introduce a descriptive clause: thus, As-clause, descriptive.

In this country, the Prime Minister rules, *as* is not the case in many other countries;

He sat down, *as* is customary in such cases.

And the *as*-clause may shade off into an adverbial one, as is shown by the following example, in which the subordinate clause may be either adjective or As-clause, adverbial.

adverb, according as we understand *as* to mean “and this,” or “and thus”:

The King, *as* I verily believe, was responsible.

But, a negative conjunctive, by contraction.

326. *But* is occasionally used after a negative verb as a kind of negative conjunctive, equivalent to *that not*. Thus,

There is not a man *but* knows it,

means “There is not a man *that* does *not* know it,” and is a contraction for “There is not a man *but* he knows it.” Indeed, in older English we find such constructions as

I found no man *but* he was true to me.

ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS.

Adverbial conjunctions, related to conjunctives.

327. The adverbs *when*, *where*, *whence*, *why*, *whither*, *how*, which, we shall see later, are related by derivation to *who* and *what*, are used in a conjunctive sense, almost as if they were cases of these words, or equivalent to *what* and *which* with prepositions; and they have the same double value, as definite and indefinite conjunctives—except *how*, which is only indefinite: thus,

You see the place *where* (= “in which,” def.) he stands;

You see *where* (indef.) he stands.

And the same statement is true of the compounds of *where* with prepositions: thus, *wherewith*, *whereby*, *wherein*; and so on. But, as is shown by the examples in this paragraph, all these words are the equivalents of adverb-phrases used conjunctively; that is, they are adverbial conjunctions.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

General characteristics.

328. It is usual to put into a class together, under the name of *indefinite* pronouns, certain words which, either by their derivation or in the way in which they are used, have a likeness to pronouns. Most of these are used as adjectives also; and they, in fact, occupy a kind of intermediate position between the real pronouns on the one hand and nouns and adjectives on the other. When used pronominally, they do not indicate a particular individual: thus,

any means "one of a number," but which is not indicated; the reference of the pronoun is left *indefinite*, or undetermined. To this class belong:

(1). The *distributives* *each*, *either*, and *neither*. (1). Distributives.
These pronouns refer to objects, not as a collection, but as taken *separately*. They are, therefore, construed, with the singular: thus,

Each (*Either*, or *Neither*) of the men (or women) expects
that he (or she) can succeed.

Each distributes two, or more than two; but, *each*.
though applicable to two, it does not imply that there are two only.

Either and *neither* distribute two, and imply that there are two only. *either, neither.*

(2). The indefinites of *number* and *quantity*: (2). Indefinites of number and quantity.
Some, any, many, few, all, both, one, and none, aught and naught. These words are construed with the singular or the plural according to their meaning, some being singular only; some plurals only; and others both singular and plural. The following points need to be noticed here:

Any (the indefinite form of the numeral *one*) is *any*.
usually plural, when it refers to number; but, in early Modern English, it is often singular: thus,

If *any* of you lack wisdom, let *him* ask God.

One (a weakened value of the numeral *one*) has two main uses: thus,

One (= "A person," indef.) wouldn't think so; *one for I*.
I have no book (or books), give me *one* (= "a book," indef.)

In some cases, *one* seems to acquire the meaning of the first personal pronoun without its directness, or clearness of reference: thus,

One may just hesitate to believe your statement.

Consequently, using *one* in the same sense, we say

One may just state that *one* (not *he*) doesn't, etc.;

One being singular governs the third person in all constructions: thus, for example, *Constructions of one and some.*

One of them (or *us*, or *you*) always *leaves his* books on the table;

but, in the case of *some*, which is plural when it refers

to number, the construction is, as usual (117), according to the sense: thus,

Some of *them* (or *us*, or *you*) always leave *their* (or *our*,
or *your*) books on the table;

He told *some* of them (or *us*, or *you*) who had *their* (or
our, or *your*) satchels with *them* (or *us*, or *you*) to leave
them on the table.

none.

None is etymologically singular, (<O.E. *nán* <*ne*, "not," and *án*, "one") and it was construed at first in the sense of "no one": thus, in Dryden,

None but the brave deserves the fair.

In present English it usually means "not any," and is, consequently, plural when used of separate articles, but singular when used of quantity: thus,

In earnest if ever man was; as *none* of the French
philosophers *were*, etc.;

Is there any bread? There *is* none.

But, in both poetry and prose of the present day, we find the singular in the original sense: thus,

Perhaps *none* of our Governor-Generals since Lord Dufferin
has done so much for Imperialism.

(3). Com-
pound
indefinites.

(3). The *compound* indefinites, *some*, *any*, *every*, and *no*, with *one*, *thing*, and *body*: thus, *someone*, *something*, *somebody*, etc.

Every distributes, referring to more than two and including all.

(4). The
comparative
other.

(4). The *comparative* indefinite, *other*. On account of its indefinite meaning, *such* is placed here by some scholars (307).

In Old English *other* was a numeral, as it still may be in our phrase,

Every *other* (that is, second) day.

(5). Recipro-
cal pronoun
phrases.

(5). *Each other* and *one another*, which have a *reciprocal* or "mutual" sense, are called *reciprocal* pronoun phrases, and are used as if simple pronouns. By origin "fond of *one another*" is, for example, really "*one* fond of *another*"; and "They love *each other*" is "They love *each* (of them the) *other*," *each*

being in apposition to *they*. But, in such constructions as

They spoke to *each other* (or *one another*),
each and *other*, and *one* and *another*, are so closely associated that they must be regarded as pronoun-phrases. In older English we find *each to other* and *one to another*, and so on.

In present English, *each other* is, by many, used only with reference to two; and *one another* only with reference to more than two. This distinction, however, though reputable and recent, is not national (13), owing, no doubt, to our dislike for distinctions when the sense is clear without them.

Each other,
and one
another,
 distinguished.

329. Of the indefinite pronouns, only *one* and *other* have plural forms, *ones* and *others*; and (except *one* and *other*, and the compounds of *one*, *thing*, and *body*) they rarely or never form a possessive case.

Inflections of
 indefinites.

In early Modern English we find a possessive for *either*: thus, in Shakespeare,

They are both in *either's* power.

OTHER WORDS USED AS INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

330. Besides the words enumerated above as indefinite pronouns, a good many other words are often used in the same way, with a weakened value thus, *a man*, *you*, *people*, *they*, *body*, *fellow*, *it* (299[5]) etc., as in the following:

Words with
 a weakened
 value as
 indefinites.

From whence can *a man* satisfy these with bread here in the wilderness;

You cannot always succeed (that is, "*no one* can");
They (that is, "*people*") say Wolseley will be recalled;

People are always cowards when in the way;
 Will it cut *a body* (or *a fellow*)? I tell you *what*;
 He knows *what's what*; He knows *who's who*.

And, according to many authorities, *same*, *enough*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *several*, etc., when construed like nouns; and, in older English, *sundry*, *certain*, *who* (312), used in the same way, are, owing to their relational character, to be included among the indefinites; and there is force in the contention, since, in some of their uses, they are unintelligible until we know to what they refer.

X. ADJECTIVES.

INFLECTION.

None in
Modern
English.

these, those.

The O. E.
adjective.

331. Adjectives have not in Modern English (as they have in Old English or in Latin and Greek, for instance) any inflection to express difference of number, or case, or gender. The apparent exceptions are the pronominal adjectives *this* and *that* which, with a plural noun, are changed to *these* and *those*. This change of form is, however, a survival from Old English of what was a substitute for inflection, not a real inflection; for *those* is etymologically the plural of *this* (305).

During the Old English period adjectives were fully inflected and agreed with the words they modified, in gender, number, and case. "A good man," "of a good man," for example, were *gód mann*, *gódes mannes*; and "that good man," "of that good man" were *se góða mann*, *thæs góðan mannes*; and so on, for in Old English, as in Modern German, there were two declensions, one definite and the other indefinite. Before the beginning of the Modern English period, however, all traces of adjective inflection had disappeared, except in the case of *these* and *those*. Shakespeare, however, has preserved one adj. ending in the case of *alderliest*, "the dearest of all"; where *alder* is another form of *aller* < *alre* < *alra*, the gen. pl. of *all*, here used as an indefinite pronoun.

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

332. From the whole body of adjectives, which, like nouns and verbs, are innumerable, we have to separate and treat by themselves certain special and limited classes; namely, *pronominal* adjectives, or adjectives related to pronouns; *numerals*, or adjectives of number; and the *articles*. Apart from these special classes, the general mass of adjectives we may conveniently call adjectives of *quality*, including under the term not only adjectives that express

“quality,” as *brave*, *victorious*, but proper adjectives, as *English*, *Canadian*, and adjectives that express quantity, as *little*, *large*, and are not included in the other classes.

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

REGULAR COMPARISON.

333. Many adjectives of quality have a variation of form which is sometimes valued as an inflection, but which is really a matter of derivation (107); for, in Old English, such forms were declined with full gender, case, and number inflections (331).

Comparison,
a matter of
derivation.

The word *larger* in “a larger book,” and in “bound thus, the book looks larger,” is said to be of the *comparative* degree; and, by means of this degree, we show that a thing exceeds another thing, or itself under circumstances, in the degree in which it possesses a certain quality.

(1). Com-
parative.

The word *largest*, in the phrase “the largest book,” is said to be of the *superlative* degree (*superlative* means “surpassing” or “exceeding”); and, by means of this degree, we show that, among any number of things (more than two) compared, one exceeds any of the rest in the degree in which it possesses a certain quality.

(2). Super-
lative.

The word *large*, in the phrase, “a large book,” is said to be of the *positive* degree (*positive* means “stating simply, without modification”), which is, thus, the adjective in its simplest form.

(3). Positive.

And this change of form, by the addition of the suffixes *er* and *est*, which many adjectives of quality undergo to mark the degree of the quality as possessed by the object they describe, when compared with other objects possessing the same quality, is called *suffix comparison*.

Suffix
comparison.

334. Many adjectives which denote qualities having differences in degree, but which are not compared by the suffixes *er* and *est*, have these differences expressed by adverbs. And, especially, the addition of *more* and *most* makes adjective phrases which have the same meanings as the comparative and the

Phrasal
comparison
with *more*
and *most*.

superlative degrees which are formed by suffixes. This mode of comparison is, therefore, called *phrasal*.

Adjectives
with both
forms.

Even adjectives which admit of suffix comparison, often form phrases of this kind instead: thus,

fit	more fit	most fit;
able	more able	most able.

And where an object is said to have more of one quality than of another, the phrase with *more* is now alone used: thus,

The news was more true than pleasant (not, *truer* than pleasant).

In Shakespeare, however, we find

Your company is *fairer* than honest.

Other forms
of phrasal
comparison.

335. By means of other modifying words, other degrees of a quality may be indicated. Thus, with *less* and *least*, we have phrasal comparatives and superlatives of *inferiority*, those with *more* and *most* being known as phrasal comparatives and superlatives of *superiority*; with *as* and *not so* (which good writers and speakers prefer to *not as*) we have phrasal comparatives of *equality* and *inequality*: thus,

He is as tall as I am; He is not so tall as I am.

History
(1). Of suffix
comparison.

336. The common O.E. suffixes of comparison were *ra* for the comparative and *ost* (more rarely *est*) for the superlative. These became reduced in Middle English: thus for example,

O. E. heard, heard-*ra*, heard-*ost*;
M. E. hard, hard-*re*, hard-*est*;

the Mod. E. comp. suffix *er* being due to the dropping of the M. E. *-e* and our pronouncing and writing the *-r* as an additional syllable. In *more*, <O. E. *má-ra*, this change has not been made.

The *-r* of the comparative represents an original Arian *s*, still seen in *worse* and *less*, and the superlative was formed by adding a *-t* to the *s*. The *ther* in *other*, *either*, *further*, *whether*, *whither*, etc., and the *-ter* in *after* are relics of an old comparative suffix (Lat. *al-ter*; Gr. *he-ter-os*, "other". Cf. also Lat. *tr-ans*, "beyond," Eng. *thr-ough*). And, as we shall see later, an old superlative ending was *-ma* (the Lat. superlative suffix *-mus*, as for example, *opti-mus*, "best"; *maxi-mus*, "greatest").

337. Phrasal comparison did not show itself until the thirteenth century, and is probably due to the extension of the use of *more* and *most* with participles and adjectives which did not strictly allow suffix comparison. During Chaucer's time it made rapid progress, and for a while was used indiscriminately along with suffix comparison. In Elizabethan literature we find such forms as

(2). Of phrasal comparison.

ancienter, eloquenter, repiningest, virtuosest, unhopefullest.

Later, owing chiefly to our desire for euphony, the present differentiation came into use.

338. The comparative degree strictly implies a comparison between two objects of thought, the superlative among more than two. Yet we sometimes say, for example, "longer than *all* the others," though "longer than *either* or than *any* of the others," would be better. And, on the other hand, both in ordinary talk and in literature, it is very common to speak of one of two things as being the *longest*, although to say the *longer* is more approved: thus, for example, in Goldsmith,

Use of the comparative.

She thought him and Olivia extremely of a size, and would bid both stand up to see which was the *tallest*.

This irregularity is due to the common tendency to drop a distinction when, as here, the meaning would be evident without it.

339. When an object is compared with the rest of its class, it is excluded from the class by the word *other*: thus,

Comparative, exclusive;
Superlative, inclusive.

This grammar is *larger* than any of the *other* books on the shelf.

And we can express the same relation by saying,

This grammar is the largest book on the shelf;

but, in the first example, we consider the grammar and the other books on the shelf as separate objects of thought, whereas in the second the grammar is considered as one of the group of books compared with one another. This difference in use is sometimes indicated by describing the comparative as *exclusive*, and the superlative as *inclusive*. Such constructions as the following are, therefore, grammatically incorrect:

In "Thaddeus of Warsaw" there is more crying than in any novel I remember to have read;

Adam, the goodliest man of men since born,
His sons; the fairest of her daughters, Eve.

Absolute and
relative
superlatives.

340. In “my dearest father” and “a man of highest renown,” there is no comparison implied, although the forms are those of superlatives. The superlatives here, and in similar adjective-phrases containing *most*, *very*, *extremely*, *supremely*, and so on, are called *absolute*; ordinary superlatives being, of course, *relative*. Again, such forms also as *bluish* and *greenish*, express an absolute diminution of quality.

Archaic
absolute
comparative.

In Early Modern English we find also absolute comparatives used in imitation of the Latin: thus, in Spenser,

Help thy *weaker* novice;

meaning, “thy *too weak* novice.” This usage was, however, confined to the Elizabethan period.

Than, sign of
comparison.

Words, com-
parative in
meaning,
but not in
construction.

341. The comparative is usually construed with *than*, which is, therefore, called its sign. There are, however, in English a few words which, though comparatives in meaning, are not comparatives in construction. These are:

(1). Words of Latin origin which are comparatives in that language; but which, not having the English comparative suffix, and so, not being felt to be comparative, are not construed as comparatives. Examples are

senior, junior, inferior, superior, ulterior.

(2). A few words of purely English origin which usage has thus restricted: as

elder, former, hinder, upper, under, inner.

Comparison
depends
partly on
meaning.

342. What adjectives shall be compared depends partly on their meaning, since some qualities or conditions hardly admit of a difference of degree: as

right, left, round, brass, yearly, Canadian, chief.

Some of such adjectives are, however, used occasionally in a weakened sense, and they may then be compared: thus,

the *chiefest* among ten thousand.

So, too, the naturalized Latin superlatives *extreme* and *supreme* make *extremest* and *supremest*.

Whether suffix or phrasal comparison shall be used depends chiefly upon the form. Most adjectives of one syllable admit of suffix comparison: thus,

Suffix
comparison,
when used.

short	shorter	shortest	fit	fitter	fittest
dry	drier	driest	coy	coyer	coyest;

but comparatively few of two syllables (generally those in very frequent use). Examples are

sincere	sincerer	sincerest	clever	cleverer	cleverest
guilty	guiltier	guiltiest	common	commoner	commonest
cruel	crueller	cruellest	ragged	raggeder	raggedest;

and of three syllables almost none.

Generally speaking, words of purely English origin, monosyllables and easily pronounced dissyllables, add *-er* and *-est*; but there is no inflexible rule and much depends upon pleasantness of sound and the desire for variety of expression or some rhetorical effect. Thus, for example, we find:

General rule.

the *immensest* quantity of thrashing; the *wonderfullest* little shoes; *more odd, strange*, and yet familiar.—THACKERAY.
distantest relationships; *sorrowfullest* spectacles; the sharpest, finest chiselling, and *patientest* fusing.—RUSKIN.

343. As the examples already given show, the addition of the suffixes of comparison usually makes an additional syllable. The addition is also sometimes accompanied with modifications in spelling. These modifications are as follows:

Changes in
spelling,
when suffix
is added.

(1). Final *e* mute is dropped: thus,

abler, ablest; handsomer, handsomest.

(2). Final *y*, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i*; but if a vowel precedes, no change takes place: thus,

happier, happiest; but, shy, shyer; gayer, gayest.

(3). A final consonant preceded by a short stressed vowel is doubled to maintain the quantity, and final *l* preceded by an unstressed vowel is also sometimes doubled: thus,

red, redder, reddest; cruel, crueller, cruellest.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

344. A few adjectives are irregularly compared. Some of them were so in Old English, and others

List of
adjectives
irregularly
compared.

have since become so. They may be classified as follows:

(1). good	better	best
bad, or ill	worse (rarely, worser)	worst
little	less (sometimes, lesser)	least
much, many	more	most
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
late	later, latter	latest, last
nigh	nigher	nighest, next

better, best.

Better, and *best* < *bet-st* (70 [1]), are mutation forms from root *bat*, seen in the O. E., *bét-an*, "to make good," and in the modern gradation forms *batt-en* and "to boot" (that is, "to the good").

less, least.

Less and *least* < O. E. *læssa* and *læsest*; *læst* (70 [1]); being mutation forms from the stem *las*, which is different from that of *little* < O. E. *lytel*. The comparatives *littler* and *littlest* occasionally appear for rhetorical effect, probably owing to the mistaken feeling that *little* is a diminutive.

worser, lesser.

The forms *worser* and *lesser* we owe to the fact that *worse* and *less*, not being comparatives of the usual type, have, by analogy, been made to conform thereto. In Mid. English *bad* and *ill* replaced *yfel*, "evil," the O. E. positive in this use.

more.

More < O. E. *mára* (336). The adverb *mo(e)* < O. E. adv. *má*, is used adjectively in Mid. and Elizabethan Eng. in the sense of "great," as still in "for the *most* part."

*elder, eldest;
older, oldest.*

Elder and *eldest* (formed by mutation, *i* having originally preceded the suffix, thus O. E. *eald*, comp. *eldra* < *eald-i-ra*) are the old forms. They are used of persons only, and are not now used with *than*, having lost some of their comparative force; *older* and *oldest* have the regular meaning and construction: thus,

my *eldest* son; My son is *older than* you (or his sister).

*latter, last;
later, latest.*

Latter and *last* < O. E. *latost* (70 [1]) are now used to express position in a series; *later* and *latest*, to express time: thus,

This is the *latest* news; for it is on the *last* page.

near.

Near is itself properly a comparative of *nigh*; so that the original comparison was *nigh*, *near*, *next*. From *near* (at first an adverb in Mod. Eng.), came *nearer* and *nearest*. *Nearest* now denotes space or distance; *next*, order in position: thus,

My house is *next* his, but his is *nearest* the road.

(2). A certain number of comparatives and superlatives have an adverb for their primitive; and the superlatives have usually the ending *most*, which, moreover, is sometimes added to what is apparently the comparative degree. Examples are,

from	in	inner	inmost, or innermost	Superlatives in <i>-most</i> .
"	out	outer	outmost, or outermost	
"	up	upper	upmost (rare), or uppermost	

Utter and *utmost*, or *uttermost*, are originally the same as *utter, utmost, outer*, etc.

Fore (sometimes itself used as an adjective) makes *former* (O. E. *for-ma*, M. E. *for-me*; *-er* being added to the superlative ending [336]) and *foremost*, or *first*, its true superlative, which, however, became specialized and detached from the series. From *fore* (O. E. *fore*) we have also *further*, and *furthest* or *furthermost*. Forms from *fore*.

Far (O. E. *feorr*, makes *farther* and *farthest* (the O. E. forms were *fierra* and *fierrest*) on a mistaken analogy with *further* and *furthest*, assisted by the greater ease of pronunciation produced by the insertion of *th*. Forms from *far*.

By many, the use of *further* and *furthest* is restricted to expressions that involve the notion of something additional, *farther* and *farthest* being used for others: thus, Forms distinguished.

New York is farther from Toronto than from Boston;
He can go no further to-day; A further reason exists.

(3). A kind of superlative is also sometimes formed with *-most* from words which do not distinguish any positive and comparative. Examples are Other superlatives in *-most*.

midmost, undermost, hithermost, nethermost, hindermost,
southmost, northernmost.

The *most* (O. E. *mest*) in such words as *utmost*, *midmost* (in [2] and [3]), is a double superlative suffix, consisting of the Arian superlative suffix *ma* (336) and the O. E. suffix *-est*, the *-ma* having become weakened, when *-est* became generally adopted. The *o* of the modern form is due to confusion with the adverb *most*. Of the superlatives which consist of this *-most* added to a comparative, the oldest forms did not contain the *r*, which seems to be due partly to analogy with comparatives and partly to its making the pronunciation easier. Origin (1). Of *-most*;

(2). Of *-mer*
in *former*.

Former is etymologically equivalent to *for* (*fore*), *m* (the superlative suffix), and *er* (the comparative suffix); the O.E. *forma* being valued as a positive, when the superlative *ma* had lost its force.

Double com-
paratives and
superlatives.

345. In earlier Modern English, we often find such expressions as

more larger, more elder, more nearer, most unkindest,
most boldest;

thus, for example, in Shakespeare,

How much *more elder* art thou than thy looks !
With the *most boldest* and best hearts in Rome ;

and in the authorized version of the Bible :

after the *most straitest* sect of our religion.

This double system was introduced in the fourteenth century; and during the seventeenth century (when it began to die out) it was very much in vogue, being regarded as an elegance of speech. It is due, partly to the natural desire for emphasis by repetition and (originally) partly to the mixing of the French phrasal and the Old English suffix comparison. In Modern English we strengthen comparatives and superlatives by adverb-phrases : thus,

by far the larger (or largest), the very largest, the lowest
of the low ;

and so on.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Pronominal
value varies.

346. Pronominal adjectives are partly adjectival and partly pronominal in function (33 [2]), and are divided into classes corresponding to those of the pronouns from which they are derived.

Not all the classes of the pronouns possess pronominal value of the same character. In the possessive adjectives, the pronominal value is clearly marked : thus, in

James lost *his* hat,

his evidently refers to the same object as *James*. But in other pronominal adjectives the pronominal value shows itself in the fact that, although a noun is added, as in

this man, *what* man ? *every* citizen of the town ;

a knowledge of the context or of the attendant or

other circumstances is necessary to enable us to determine the exact reference of the phrase (20 and 35).

POSSESSIVE.

347. Most of the possessive adjectives correspond to the personal pronouns. They are

	Sing.	Plural.		Sing.	Plural.
1st pers.	my, mine;	our, ours;	3rd	m. his	} their,
2nd pers.	thy, thine;	your, yours;	pers.	f. her, hers	
				n. its;	theirs.

The distinction of person, gender, and number in these words is, of course, a distinction belonging to the persons or things possessing, and not to the persons or things possessed, or to the words modified by the possessives.

Relation
of forms.

348. The possessive pronominal adjectives were originally O.E. genitives, which became—some more, some less—adjectival. Those which became most so were the genitives of the first and second personal pronouns. In Old English these were fully declined like adjectives, and *his*, a late formation, showed the same tendency. Except in a few expressions we have lost the use of these words as possessive cases (300). The forms *mine* and *thine* (in O.E. *min* and *thin*, *e* being used in modern spelling to show the long *i* sound) were the original genitives. In early Modern English, these began to drop the *n* before words beginning with a consonant, thus producing the two additional forms, *my* and *thy*.

History of:
his;

mine, thine;
my, thy.

By the fourteenth century, *s* had become the general poss. ending of nouns, and it was that of *his*. Accordingly, *-s* was added to the other single forms, giving *our* and *ours*, *your* and *yours*, *her* and *hers*, and later *their* and *theirs*. And there were besides (as still in dialectical English) forms with the genitive ending *n* (made, probably, on the analogy of *mine* and *thine*); thus, *ouren*, *youren*, etc.

The value
of *-s*.

The original genitive of *it* (O.E. *hit*) was *his*; but, as this was also the genitive of *he*, *its* was made about the end of the sixteenth century and became gradually established about the middle of the seventeenth. For a time *it* was used as a possessive also: thus,

its.

Go to *it* grandam, child.

The *n* in *mine* and *thine*, the *r* in *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their*, and the *s* in *his* and *its* are genitive endings. Accordingly, the forms *ours*, *yours*, *hers* and *theirs* have two endings expressing possession.

The values of
-n and *-r*.

Uses of *my*
and *mine*, etc.

349. The existence of two forms of the same word led gradually to a well-established difference of use in Modern English: thus, the forms, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used absolutely; that is, when no modified noun follows these forms; *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your* and *their* are used when a noun follows; and *his* and *its* have both uses: thus,

my book and *yours*; *your* book and *mine*;
The book is *hers*, not *his* or *theirs*.

But in older English, and in old-style English, *mine* and *thine* are frequently found instead of *my* and *thy*, especially before a vowel: thus,

brother *mine*, *mine* own eyes, *thine* every wish;
Give every man *thine* ear but few thy voice.

Compared
with posses-
sive case and
adjective.

Both adjectives and possessive cases may be used to modify nouns, attributively and predicatively: thus,

the *good* man; he *boy's* book;
The man is *good*; The book is the *boy's*.

These uses *my* and *mine*, *thy* and *thine*, and so on, divide between them.

DEMONSTRATIVE.

350. The demonstrative pronominal adjectives are:
this, these; that, those; yon, yonder; so, such.

The first two pairs are of the same form as the demonstrative pronouns; and are used with the same differences of meaning.

yon, *yonder*.

Yon (or *yond*) and *yonder* point to a remoter object, generally to one in sight. Neither form is in general use. *Yon* belongs to older literature and to dialectical English, where it is found as a pronoun also. Examples from Shakespeare are

Nerissa, cheer *yon* stranger;
Yond star that's westward from the pole.

Yonder is still used adverbially also; as in "He has gone yonder."

so.

So may be valued as a demonstrative adjective in such sentences as

He was tired and *so* was I; It is *so*; He became *so*;
Thou found'st me poor and keep'st me *so*.

But, although *so* refers to some notion expressed before, it is not so markedly and purely demonstrative as those already given.

Such also may be valued as a demonstrative adjective when it refers to something which has just been mentioned or is going to be mentioned: thus, *such.*

He is not truthful; I dislike *such* a man;
Such men as Milton live for all time.

* INTERROGATIVE.

351. The interrogative words *who* and *whether* are used only as pronouns, not as adjectives. But *which* and *what* are so used, and are, therefore, *interrogative* adjectives. Both of them apply to either persons or things, and they differ only in that *which* is selective. Thus, in general, "*What* book have you?"; but, if two or more are had distinctly in mind, and the question is as to the particular one among them, "*Which* book have you?" *What* may also be used as an exclamatory adjective: thus, *which, what.*

What,
exclamatory.

What a piece of work is man!

CONJUNCTIVE.

Which and *what* are also the only conjunctive adjectives. Both are like the indefinite conjunctives in their different uses, and *which* differs from *what* in being selective: thus, *which, what.*

I know *what* book (that is, the book *in general*, which) you mean;

Let him make *what* efforts he pleases;

I know *which* book (that is, the book *in particular*, of a certain known set), which you mean;

I asked him *which* (or, *what*) book he had;

What time (= "At the time at which," arch.) I am afraid, I will trust in thee.

But *which* is sometimes used like a definite conjunctive: thus,

He was gone a year, during *which* time he travelled all over Europe.

Compound
forms.

The compound forms *whichever* and *whatever*, and so on, have the value of adjectives as well as of pronouns, and a like meaning.

INDEFINITE.

352. Most of the so-called indefinite pronouns, with one or two kindred words, are used also as *indefinite pronominal* adjectives. There are three sub-classes:

(1). Dis-
tributives.

(1). *Distributive* adjectives: *each* and *every*, *either* and *neither*. Of these, *every* is always adjective.

(2). Com-
paratives:
such.

(2). *Comparatives*: *such* and *other*; *such* implying resemblance, and *other*, difference. Owing to its meaning ("so-like"), *such* is both demonstrative and indefinite. It is purely indefinite in such a sentence as

He came to see me on *such* a day (= "some day or other")
and I gave him *such* and *such* an answer (= "some
answer or other").

other.

Other, which is etymologically a comparative (336), is followed by *than*, like comparative adjectives in general: thus,

It is true of other worlds than ours.

Other has a markedly indefinite use in

My mother came home the *other* day.

(3). Quan-
titatives:
one.

(3). *Quantitatives*: *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *one* and *no*. *One* is indefinite in such a sentence as

I saw him *one* day (= "a day not mentioned") last week;
One Jones came to see me.

many, *few*.

In such uses of *many* and *few* as in

a great many men, a very few men,

the preposition *of* is omitted before men; *many* is a real noun, being modified by the adjective *great*; and *few*, an adjective, used as a noun, being modified by an adverb, and so being only partially converted (85).

Many,
a noun.

By earlier Modern English writers, and even now by poets, *many* is used as a noun; thus, by Shakespeare,

a many of our bodies, the rank-scented many,
in many's books,

and by Tennyson (who has reproduced many old English expressions):

They have not shed a many tears,
Dear eyes, since first I knew them well.

In modern prose, the word *great* usually precedes *many*; and, in some phrases with both *many* and *few*, the *of* is expressed: thus,

a *great* many (and a *few*) *of* my (and our, the man's,
and John's) acts.

After definite numerals the *of* is sometimes omitted and sometimes expressed: thus,

Of, after
definite
numerals.

a dozen sheep, a hundred sheep, three score years and
ten, a score *of* sheep.

353. The genitive was used after numerals in Old English, so that when case-endings were dropped, the modern form resulted; but why in some phrases the *of* is now inserted, and, in others, omitted, we do not know. We know simply that such forms have become established.

The origin of *many* in such phrases as “full *many* a gem,” “*many* an opportunity,” has not been ascertained. It seems to have the force of a multiplicative numeral adverb, meaning “many times one gem”; and so on. The O.E. *moni* “many” which is found in this construction as far back as the thirteenth century, was used as an adverb.

In such phrases as

what a piece, such a Roman, so excellent a print, as
queer a man;

Adjective
similarly
placed.

and so on, the usual order is inverted. In older English the inversion does not take place, and, sometimes, in Modern English, the usual order is followed thus,

a so excellent fruit, a man as queer.

Such illogical phrases as

both of us, all of us, the whole of the world,

have evidently been formed on the analogy of the partitive in such phrases as “five of us”; and the *of* *us*, etc., is consequently falsely partitive (268).

NUMERALS.

354. The quantitatives are often called *indefinite numerals*, from their use in describing *number*. But

Indefinite
numerals.

there is also a special class of definite quantitatives used in counting and so on, which are called *numerals*.

CARDINALS.

355. The chief are those which are used in answering the question, "How many?" They are called (in contrast with the ordinals, explained below) the *cardinal* numerals, or the *cardinals* (*cardinal* means, as used here, "principal, most important").

Uses: lower numbers.

The cardinals are, *one, two, three, four*, and so on; and are used not only adjectively, modifying a noun, but also as nouns, when alone, or connected with a following noun by the preposition *of*. Thus, either "*three men*," or "*three of the men*." Used as nouns, they may all form plurals: thus,

They walked by *twos* and *threes*;

Archaic possessives.

And in older English, we sometimes find them in the possessive case: thus, in the Bible,

I will not do it for *forty's* sake;
I will not destroy it for *twenty's* sake.

Higher numbers.

The higher numbers, *hundred, thousand, million*, and so on, usually keep the singular form in simple enumeration, even after *two, three*, etc.; and always, if they form part of a compound number, made up of different denominations. Thus, we say *two hundred, two hundreds*; but *ten thousand, six hundred*, the singular forms, which alone are adjectival, indicating the sum merely; and the plural, which are nouns only, having also reference to the original parts that constitute the sum.

Other forms.

For *two*, an old form *twain*, is still sometimes used; and *dozen* is a common substitute for *twelve*, and *score* for *twenty*.

From the cardinals come the following classes of derivative words:

ORDINALS.

356. The *ordinals*, by which we show the *order* or place of anything in a series, reckoning from the first. Most of the ordinals are formed from the cardinals

by the suffix *th*, which, in the case of compound numbers, is added to the last only (compare 263); thus, Formation;
uses.

fourth, fifth, eighteen hundred and seventy-seventh; and so on. But the ordinals of *one*, *two*, and *three* are *first*, *second*, *third*, and these are used also in the compound numbers: as

twenty-first, ninety-second, hundred and third.

357. When an ordinal and one or more cardinals are used together to modify a noun, there is no settled rule for their order. Thus, for example, we find Position.

The delay in the *first three* lines, and conceit in the last, jar upon us constantly.—RUSKIN;

These are the *first three* needs of civilized life.—RUSKIN;
He has already finished the *first three* sticks of it.—ADDISON;

The *seven first* centuries were filled with a succession of triumphs.—GIBBON.

Both arrangements are used by good writers and speakers, although the meanings are not the same. The meaning, however, sometimes decides: thus, for example, the other order would be objectionable in

Mankind, for the *first seventy thousand* years, ate their meat raw;

and when there are not more than one three, the order in the *first three* is an awkward one.

FRACTIONALS.

358. The words that are used as cardinals, except *first* and *second*, are also used as nouns to denote one of a corresponding number of equal parts into which anything is supposed to be divided: thus, Uses.

a *third* (or, third part) of an apple; *six hundredths* of the amount.

In this sense they are called *fractionals*.

The fractional corresponding to *two* is *half*, instead of *second*; and instead of *fourth* we more often say *quarter*.

MULTIPLICATIVES.

359. In order to show how many times anything is taken, the cardinal numeral is formed into a Uses.

compound adjective with the English word *fold*, which remains singular: thus,

twofold, tenfold, hundred-fold.

These words are called *multiplicatives*.

Of the same value are

simple, double, triple, quadruple;

Romanic
forms.

and a few others with the Romanic suffix *ple* (or *ble*). much less often used.

Numeral
adverbs.

The numeral adverbs *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, have a similar multiplicative sense. We use also multiplicative adverbial phrases, as *three times*, *four times*, and so on.

THE ARTICLES.

360. The articles, *an*, or *a*, and *the*, are two words of somewhat peculiar character and office (*article* means "a little joint," these words having been at one time fancifully regarded as "joints" of the sentence). *An*, or *a*, resembles the numeral, and *the*, the demonstrative adjectives, but they have so peculiar meanings and uses that they must be taken up separately.

Origin.

361. *An*, or *a*, and *the*, are respectively weakened derivatives, both in form and in meaning, from the O.E. numeral *án* (Mod. Eng. *one*), and from the O.E. demonstrative adjective *sé*, *séo*, *that* (later *thé*, *théo*, *that*), which had a weakened meaning also in Old English. The modern *the one* and *the other* were formerly *that one* and *that other*, the latter surviving in the vulgar *the tother*, and both surviving in the Scotch *the tane* and *the tother* (or *tither*).

Survivals of
old forms.

Uses, when
not articles.
an, or *a*.

In phrases like

a dollar *an* inch; two dollars *a* pound;

the *an*, or *a*, is not precisely the article; it is a weakened form of the numeral *one* in another sense, that of "each one, each, every."

In other cases, however, as in

I fast twice *a* week;

the article seems to have been originally the preposition *on*; and it is undoubtedly this preposition, weakened in sound, through the absence of sentence-stress (70 [2]), in

He is gone *a* hunting; They set it *a* going;

and the like (which are often, and better, written *a-hunting*, *a-going*).

The *the* which we often find before a comparative *the*. (adjective or adverb) in such expressions as

the more, the merrier; *The more he worked, the less he did*;

is an adverb, being, etymologically, the instrumental case of the demonstrative. In this construction, it is both conjunctive and demonstrative: thus,

The more (= "by how much"—conj.), *the* (= "by so much"—dem.) *merrier*.

362. *An* is used before a vowel-sound; *a* before a consonant-sound. But, if a word beginning with a pronounced *h* is stressed on the second syllable, most persons use *an*, as the *h* in such words is not fully sounded: thus,

The article
an, or *a*;
when used.

an hotel; an historical novel; an hypothesis.

Before the sound of *y* or *w*, whether written or not, only *a* is proper in present English; thus,

such a one; a union; a European;

just as we should say *a wonder*, *a youth*.

363. *An* or *a* indicates that we are speaking of some one or of any one of the objects of which the noun is the common name. Examples are:

Why called
Indefinite.

A man called on me to-day;

An officer should be sent to him;

A horse, a horse, my kingdom for a horse!

A man should bear himself bravely in adversity;

The simple perception of natural forms is a delight;

All men are at last of a size.

From this use it is called the *indefinite* article.

These examples illustrate the chief uses of the indefinite article, the exceptional ones being due to the weakening of the original force. In the first, it is nearly equivalent to "a certain," thus indicating an individual of the class, but not specifying which one, although it may be possible to do so; in the second, it is more indefinite, and is nearly equivalent to "some or other"; in the third, the indefiniteness is still greater, and *a horse* is nearly equivalent to "any horse whatever;" in the fourth, the effect of its use is to generalize the statement, *a man* being nearly equivalent

Explanation
of uses.

to "any man you may mention," and, therefore to "all men"; in the fifth, the phrase denotes only one instance or example; and, in the last, *a* approaches *one* in value.

The article
the:
Why called
Definite.

364. *The* usually marks off the noun to which it is joined, as the name of something, which both speaker and hearer can in their minds separate from others of the same class: thus,

The boy we want is not here; Thou art the man;
The duke is dead.

From this use it is called the *definite* article.

Explanation
of uses.

365. *The* has a weaker demonstrative force than *that*. Consequently, some defining circumstance is generally expressed or understood with it. It has two main uses:

(1). In

the orator Cicero, the green blinds, the man who was there;
the other defining attributes are expressed, and to them *the* directs attention: in

This is the man; Ye are the people; The Duke is dead;
the moon, the universe, the Ottawa, the heavens, the Kant;

it directs the attention to objects with the notion of which our experience has made us familiar. In all these cases, *the* points out a particular object or class of objects.

(2). In such expressions as

the maple, the English, the pious, the nobility,
the ridiculous, the fool (as in "He plays the fool");

the has become still more weakened, for there is no additional limitation expressed or understood.

Repetition
of article.

366. Usually the article is not repeated when several adjectives modify one and the same noun: thus,

James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy;
the fairest and most loving wife in Greece;

But it may be repeated for emphasis when it is clear that the reference is to one object: thus,

James was declared *a* mortal and *a* bloody enemy;
the fairest and *the* most loving wife in Greece.

and it must be repeated when the reference is to two or more objects: thus,

the red and *the* white flag; *a* red and *a* white flag;

when we mean, in each case, two flags. If we mean one, we should say

the red and white flag, a red and white flag.

367. The absence of the article is characteristic of names of materials, the nominative of address, proper nouns and words resembling them, and, generally, of words in their broadest meaning. There is also a tendency to use nouns as predicate, appositive, or complementary nouns, without an article: thus,

Absence
of article.

He became premier; Victoria, Queen of England;
They made him king; He was elected emperor.

And no article is found in many phrases in common use:

to leave school, to cast anchor, to take breath, to keep house;
on foot, at school, at anchor, at fault, on hand.

The absence of the articles is, in many cases, a survival; for, in Old English, they were sparingly used, and, as in Latin, there were no articles in the parent Germanic.

SPECIAL USES OF THE ADJECTIVE.

368. The use as nouns of words ordinarily adjectives has been already explained (274). But

(1). An adjective very often stands alone, as expressing a quality of an object, the noun denoting which is understood, or to be supplied in mind from the connection. Examples are

Absolute
uses

He owns a white horse, and I a *black* (horse);
His horse is white, but *mine* (my horse) is black;
I will give you my book, but I will take *his* (his book);
He is a *just* (man), but not a generous man;
She was by far the *loveliest* (girl) of the three girls.

(2). And a comparative or a superlative is sometimes used alone where, with a positive, we should have to use *one*, or a noun, or the like: thus,

She was the *loveliest* among the three;
Of the pair she was the *lovelier*;

while we should say

She was the lovely *one* of the family.

How to
deal with
such uses.

It may fairly be made a question whether, in the examples in (1) and (2) above, we shall describe the adjective as modifying a noun not expressed, or as having the value of a noun, with a somewhat relational meaning. Probably the latter is to be preferred; for, in each case, the sense is evident from the context without supplying the noun.

Complements
to subjectless
infinitives.

(3). In such expressions as

To be *wise* is to be truly *happy*;
John's (or, His) being *young* was against him;

the adjectives are used as complements to infinitives without subjects or to gerunds, and have, therefore, no words to modify. The phrases are general in their nature, and are equivalent to nouns: thus,

Wisdom is true *happiness*;
John's (or, His) *youth* was against him.

This function of the adjective follows from the nature of the infinitive and gerund (187) and of the adjective verb or its equivalent, the copula with a complement (157).

OTHER FORMS OF ADJECTIVES.

WORDS.

369. As in the case of nouns, words not ordinarily adjectives, also phrases and clauses, are sometimes used as adjectives (32).

I. Nouns.
(1). Common
case.

(1). Nouns, especially those denoting material, are very often used as adjectives, without any change of form: thus,

a *gold* watch, a *rail* fence, a *bible* text.

Such phrases are of the same nature as the first stage in the formation of compounds (87). This mode of expressing the adjective notion is a direct result of the loss of inflections (86).

(2). Posses-
sive case.

(2). The possessive case of nouns is, as has been shown (142), adjectival in function, and an adjective may sometimes be substituted therefor: thus,

a *father's* care, and *paternal* care, or *fatherly* care.

370. Adverbs may also be used occasionally as II. Adverbs. adjectives (144): thus,

the *then* ruler, my *sometime* friend;
Napoleon, *then* emperor, favored the scheme.

This usage is still more common with words which may be used indifferently as adverbs or as prepositions: thus,

the *up* train, the *after* part, the *above* remarks.

An adverb (32) used in the predicate to modify the subject becomes adjective in function: thus,

In the
predicate.

The man was *there*; The stars are *out*;
His step was light, for his heart was *so*.

PHRASES.

A phrase is often adjectival. Examples are

Of different
kinds.

The war *between Prussia and Austria*;
Having gone away, he bettered his fortune;
A *cat and dog* life; an *all round* scholar.

CLAUSES.

371. The adjective clause is the simplest of the subordinate clauses in construction. It is always the equivalent of an attributive or appositive adjective, and is introduced by a conjunctive pronoun; or else by an adverbial conjunction: thus, *when*, *whence*, *why*, *when*, etc.

Regularly and usually the adjective clause follows what it modifies. Sometimes, however, especially in older English, it precedes it: thus,

Position.

What you have spoke, it may be so by chance (319);
Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his (= "of
him" [300]) blood be shed;
Whosoever hath not seen the noble city of Venice, he hath
not seen the beauty and rulers of the world (322).

In the following, the construction of the adjective-clauses presents some difficulties:

Difficult
constructions.

On the day *that* (= "on which") thou eatest thereof, etc.;
This is the reason *that* (= "for which"). I sent for you;
He *never* (= "at no time") sees me *that* (= "at which")
he does not mock me;
Theirs (= "Of them") is the fault who began the quarrel (300);
Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall *his* (= "of
him") blood be shed;
He is not here *that* (antecedent "a being here" implied)
I know of.

In the first, second, and third examples, *that* is used without the preposition (an O.E. construction also); and in the sixth and seventh, the antecedent of the conjunctive is implied, not separately expressed. The use of a conjunctive, with its antecedent in the possessive case, is common in poetry; but, though colloquial, it is not sanctioned in present prose.

LOGICAL VALUES OF ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS.

CLAUSES.

372. Adjective clauses, although always modifiers of a substantive word, have a variety of logical values which are often not shown by their construction; for, as we have seen in the case of the subjunctive mood (220), what is implied in a sentence does not necessarily affect its grammatical structure.

On the basis of their logical values, adjective clauses may be classified as follows; but, of course, in some of the examples, the clauses may have other values than those given below.

(1). Ordinary limiting.

(1). Adjective clauses, the function of which is simply to *limit*, or define, the meaning of their antecedents; they describe also, of course: thus,

This is something that I must guard against:

They had fled from the post where God had placed them :

He hath the means whereby he may accomplish it :

Never yet was noble man but made ignoble talk (326) ;

Make me savory meat such as I love (325):

A soldier who fights bravely would not do so, even if he might.

Such clauses are distinguished as *ordinary_limiting* adjective clauses.

(2). Adverbial limiting.

(2). Limiting adjective clauses which, as a result of the limitation, are logically equivalent to *adverb* clauses also:

An old maid *that* (= "if, or when she") has the vapors
produces infinite disturbances ;

Soldiers *who* ("if, or when they") fight bravely, die fearlessly;

Any one *that* (= "if, or when he") does so, will be fined.

Such adjective clauses are called *adverbial limiting*, of *condition*, etc. As is shown by the last example in (1) above, the context will indicate what the condition really is.

(3). Adjective clauses in which there is no distinct suggestion of co-ordination, and which simply *describe* without limiting: thus, (3). Ordinary descriptive.

The sun, which shines on high, is golden.

Such clauses are called *ordinary descriptive*.

(4). Descriptive adjective clauses in which there is a suggestion of an addition, and which are, therefore, logically equivalent to *copulative* or *illative co-ordinate* clauses: thus, (4). Co-ordinate descriptive.

He spoke to you, *who* (= "and you") then left the room ;
I gave him some bread, *which* (= "and it," or "and this") he ate ;

He passed it to the stranger, *who* (= "and he") drank heartily ;
She carried it to the closet, *where* (= "and there") she hid it ;
His father, *who* (= "for he") was close by, came over at once ;
My dog, *which* (= "for it") had come with me, began to growl.

Such adjective clauses are distinguished as *co-ordinate descriptive*, *copulative* or *illative*, as the case may be.

In this use *which* and *as* (316 and 325) may have their antecedent implied in the preceding context: thus,

He did not come, *which* I greatly regret ;
He has been long dead, *as* is well known ;

the antecedents being "his not coming" and "his being dead," which are implied in the sentences. But, as we have already seen (325), this construction shades off into one in which it is proper to value the *as*-clause as adverbial.

(5). Descriptive adjective clauses which are logically equivalent to an *adverb*-clause: thus, (5). Adverbial descriptive.

When I *that* (= "because I") knew him fierce and turbulent,
refused her to him ;
He deceived his master, *who* (= "although he") had been
his friend.

Such adjective clauses are called *adverbial descriptive*, of *cause*, etc.

WORDS AND PHRASES.

373. Words and phrases have the same logical values as adjective clauses and may generally be replaced thereby. The following are examples; but,

of course, some of the modifiers may have other values given them as in the case of adjective clauses:

(1). Ordinary limiting.

(1). Ordinary limiting:

Smith, the *orator*, is dead;
He has a *black* hat on his head;
This is something to be *guarded against*.

(2). Adverbial limiting.

(2). Adverbial limiting:

She forgave him, the *traitor* (= "although he was a traitor");
She forgave him, her *brother* (= "because he was her brother");
A *brave* man would try it (= "if he were brave");
The pot-hunter shot the bird *sitting* (= "although [or, when] it was sitting" [138]);
A man of *wealth* would buy it (= "if he were wealthy").

(3). Ordinary descriptive.

(3.) Ordinary descriptive:

Socrates, the *philosopher*, died of poison;
The *golden* sun sent forth his rays;
The fireman had a helmet of *brass*;
The man came *running* (122).

(4). Co-ordinate descriptive.

(4). Co-ordinate descriptive:

He worshipped God, the *Creator* (= "for [or, and] He was the Creator");
And I, the *last*, go forth, *companionless* (= "and I am the last"; "and I am companionless");
I shall leave to-morrow for Port Arthur, *returning* next week (= "and I shall return next week");
He fell at last, *having been overcome by his misfortunes*, (= "for he had been overcome by his misfortunes");
He came, *running at the top of his speed* (138).

(5). Adverbial descriptive.

(5). Adverbial descriptive:

He respected his uncle, *his guardian* (= "because [or, although] he was his guardian");
Mute at first (= "Although he was mute at first"), he soon learned to speak;
Having lost his hold on the electors (= "As he had lost his hold on the electors"), he retired from politics.

XI. ADVERBS.

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

374. Adverbs in English are innumerable, and of the most various meaning. We may divide them roughly into the following classes, but the same word may be an adverb of one or another class. in different meanings and connections. Classification, a rough one.

(1). Of *place* and *motion*: as, *here*, *yonder*, *thither*, *up*.

(2). Of *time* and *succession*: as, *now*, *formerly*, *next*, *first*.

(3). Of *manner* and *quality*: as, *so*, *somehow*, *ill*, *foolishly*.

(4). Of *measure* and *degree*: as, *little*, *more*, *scarcely*, *enough*, *but* (= "only").

(5). Of *modality*, or *modal* adverbs: such as show the mode in which the thought is conceived by the speaker, the relation of one thought to another, and so on: thus,

(1). *Affirmative*: as, *surely*, *certainly*, *indeed*.

(2). *Negative*: as, *not*, *noways*.

(3). *Potential*: as, *perhaps*, *possibly*, *probably*.

(4). *Causal*: as, *hence*, *therefore*, *accordingly*.

375. Adverbs used in asking questions; as, *when*, *where*, *whence*, *how*, *why*, *wherefore*, are called *interrogative*, and are themselves classed as interrogative adverbs. Interrogative adverbs.

Like the interrogative pronouns, these adverbs are used in exclamatory sentences, especially *how*: thus, Exclamatory use.

How kind of you to take this trouble!

How often have I warned you to be careful!

What (310) is also used in the same way: thus,

What a brave fellow your brother is!

Adverbs
shade into
prepositions
and con-
junctions

376. Adverbs shade off into prepositions and conjunctions; and the same word is often used as two of these parts of speech, or even as all three. Thus, the oldest and simplest prepositions, such as *in*, *on*, *off*, *up*, *to*, were originally adverbs, and most of them are still used as such: thus,

He came *in*; They ran *off*; It turned *up*; Move *to* and *fro*;
and *since* is adverb, preposition, and conjunction, in

He came *since*; He came *since* morning;
He came *since* I left.

And, when an adverb, instead of modifying simply the verb in a sentence, modifies logically (that is, in meaning) the whole sentence, turning it into an adverb and showing its relation to another sentence or word, it has the value of a conjunction; thus, *then* and *when* are adverbs in

He finished his work and *then* went away;
When will you return to work?

but conjunctions in

Have you finished? *Then* go away;
I will see you *when* you return.

COMPARISON.

Suffix
comparison.

377. (1). Of those adjectives which are used as adverbs without change of form, the comparative and superlative are generally used adverbially also: thus,

near, nearer, nearest; late, later, latest;

but

well, better, best; *badly* (*ill*), worse, worst.

(2). But only a few words that are always adverbs have suffix comparison of their own: thus, for example,

soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest.

rather.

Rather is a comparative without a corresponding positive or superlative. Tennyson, however, who has used many old words, has the positive *rathe*: thus,

Till *rathe* she rose, half-cheated with the thought.

And, Milton uses the obsolete adjective in "the *rathe* primrose."

The archaic *erst* is a superlative from the O. E. adverb *erst*, *ær*, our conjunction and preposition *ere*.

(3). Phrasal comparison is used for many adverbs of quality as for adjectives of the same kind: thus, for example, Phrasal comparison.

truly, more truly, most truly; less truly; as truly.

378. In Old English, the adverbial suffixes of comparison were *or* and *ost* (now *er* and *est*). These were added to adverbs in *-e* or *-lice* (our *-ly*). O. E. suffixes.

In modern poetry, we sometimes find adverbs in *-ly* following the O. E. mode of comparison: thus, Modern survivals.

I should *freelier* rejoice in that absence.—SHAKESPEARE;

To show what coast thy sluggish *erare*

Might *earliest* harbor in.—MILTON;

Its strings *boldlier* swept.—COLERIDGE;

Then must she keep it *safelier*.—TENNYSON.

FORMATION.

379. A few adverbs are primitive in our language, as, *so*, *now*, *quite*; but many are either shortened forms of words and phrases, or they are survivals of cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. Owing to these peculiarities, we notice in some detail the formation of adverbs.

New adverbs are almost invariably formed from adjectives, with the suffix *ly* (O. E. *lice*, “like,” which became *ly*, just as *ic* and *ich* became *I*). Adverbs formed in this way are by far the largest class. The addition of *-ly* causes in some cases changes in the sound or the spelling of the primitive, or in both: thus, for example, Usual suffix, *-ly*.

truc, truly; hasty, hastily; gay, gaily; frantic, frantically.

A few adverbs have been formed from adjectives and nouns by the suffix *wise* (O. E. *wis*, “manner”), as, *likewise*, *lengthwise*; but, as *wise* is still an independent word, such adverbs may be regarded as compounds. *-wise*.

Other suffixes are *ward*, or *wards* (*s* being a genitive suffix); and *ling*, which became *long*, by analogy, as in *-ward*,
-wards.

-*ling*. *headlong* < *headling*, *sidelong* < *sideling*. The suffix *ling* is still seen in the archaic adverb *darkling*: thus,

O! wilt thou darkling leave me!—SHAKESPEARE.
Then darkling try thy dangerous way.—SCOTT.

I. Adjectives
as adverbs.

380. Not a few adjectives are used as adverbs, without any change of form: as

much, most, all, ill, fast, hard, sore.

Some in
-*ly* also.

Some such adjectives take also the suffix *ly*, there being occasionally some difference of meaning between the two forms: thus,

most, mostly; hard, hardly; sore, sorely; late, lately.

But usage is capricious, for we say, for example, (there being no difference of meaning):

to speak <i>loud</i> ,	BUT	to shout <i>loudly</i> ;
to serve a man <i>right</i> ,	“	to judge or conclude <i>rightly</i> ;
to live <i>close</i> to me;	“	to be <i>closely</i> confined.

Poetical
usage.

In poetry, especially, the use of the adjective form as the adverb is very common: thus, for example,

The birds sang *clear*; The listener *scarce* might know;
Soft replied the flute; The furrow followed *free*.

Such constructions, however, (as in the last example) shade off into those in which the modifying word may be valued as an adjective.

Origin of
identity of
forms.

381. The identity of form of many adjectives and adverbs is due to the disappearance of the O. E. adverbial suffix *e*: thus *hard*, adverb and adjective, represents the O. E. adjective *heard* and adverb *hearde*. In poetry, therefore, we have only the archaic use retained, not really the substitution of the adjective for the adverb. In early Modern English, indeed, this usage was more common than in present English, and sometimes the two forms are found side by side: thus, for example, in Shakespeare,

Which the false man does *easy*; raged more *fierce*;
Thou didst it *excellent*; new lodged and *newly* deified.

II. Adverbs,
case-forms:
Adjectives.

382. A few adverbs are modified case-forms of adjectives: thus,

else, once, twice < M. E. gen. *elles*, *ones*, *twyes*;
little, seldom < O. E. dat. *littlum*, *seldum*;
enough < O. E. acc. *genoh*.

A few are also adverbially used cases of nouns: thus, *needs*; and *-ways, -days, -times*, in compound adverbs, are genitives; the obsolete *whilom* and the suffix *meal* (in *piecemeal*) < O. E. dat. pl. *hwilum*, "at times," and *mealum*, "by portions"; *ever* and *never* < O. E. dat. sing. *æfre* and *næfre*; and *home, back, and half* were originally accusatives. Nouns.

The noun part of a large number of adverbial phrases and compounds was originally accusative: thus, for example,

sometime, always, straightway, no way, likewise,
yesterday, meanwhile, the while.

And many such compounds have other forms which are due to analogy: thus,

sometimes, always, straightwise, otherways (and *-wise*),
noways (and *-wise*).

383. Three series of adverbs corresponding to one another come from pronominal roots (the *where*-series being adverbial conjunctions when not used interrogatively); they are

III. Pronominal adverbs.

here,	hither,	hence;				
there,	thither,	thence,	then,	the,	thus;	
where,	whither,	whence,	when,	why,	how.	

The ending *re* marks place; *ther* is comparative; *n* is accusative, *then* being a differentiated form of *than*; *nce* is a compound suffix, *ce* being genitive; *the* (before the comparatives [361]), *why* and its doublet *how*, and probably *thus*, are instrumental cases.

384. A number of adverbs come from nouns and adjectives by the prefix *a* (usually for earlier *on* [154]; both forms being sometimes still used): thus,

IV. Derivatives with *a-* and *be-*.

aback, ahead, aside, aright, anew, along; alive (on life [70]),
afire (on fire), afoot (on foot), ashore (on shore),
asleep (on sleep, ACTS, xiii, 6).

And the *be-* of *betimes, beside, beyond, between, before*, and so on, is, in like manner, from the preposition *by*.

385. Compound adverbs are mostly phrases of two (rarely more) words, which have, as it were, grown together into one. Examples are

Compounds.

sideways, headforemost, knee-deep, meanwhile, always.

Such combinations of a preposition with the word which it governs are especially common: thus,

indeed, erewhile, overhead, forever, forsooth.

Adverbs
with adverbs.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where*, are combined with many words which are now usually prepositions, forming compounds which are equivalent to *it*, *this*, *that*, *which*, or *what*, along with the preposition: thus,

Herein (= "In this") lies the difficulty;
In the day thou eatest *thereof* (= "of it");
The means *whereby* (= "by which") I live;
Wherewith (= "With what") shall I save Israel;
In whatever state I am, *therewith* (= "with that") to be content.

O. E. idiom.

In Modern English we say "James sat *in there*," where *in* is an adverb modified by *there*, both forming a sort of temporary compound. The O. E. equivalent of this construction was "James sat *there in*," where the *in* modifies the *there*; so that, in *herein*, *thereof*, etc., we have really two adverbs united into a compound.

PECULIAR WORDS.

Peculiar
uses of
adverbs:
With pre-
positions
and con-
junctions.

386. Adverbs sometimes seem to modify prepositions or conjunctions: thus,

He jumped *clear* over the wall;
He came *long* after I had gone;

but, as *clear* and *long* modify the adverbs *over* and *after* in

He jumped *clear* over;
He came *long* after;

they may be taken as modifying the adverbial notions in the preposition *over* and the conjunction *after*. Prepositions, indeed, may be described as transitive adverbs, especially as they are adverbs in origin. But, as in such constructions, the adverbs logically modify the whole phrase, they may be so described, properly enough.

With nouns.

387. Sometimes, also, adverbs seem to modify nouns; but when the adverbs have not become converted into adjectives, they really express a modification of the verbal notion either of action or of

state or existence, which many nouns suggest: thus, for example,

After my return (action) *home* yesterday;
We recall our misfortunes (state) *heretofore*;
He came during my residence *here*;

or of the grammatical value which the noun possesses from its function in the sentence: thus,

So sweet that joy is *almost* pain (pred. nom.);
Gladstone, *formerly* premier of England (appos.)

Hence the adverb in this use is oftener predicative or appositive (137) than attributive (144).

388. A few words, ordinarily adverbs, are peculiarly used. *Even*, for example, may be used in connection with a word or a phrase to emphasize the identity: thus, for example,

Peculiar words:
Even, an adverbial particle.

It is *even* she I mean; It was *even* her brother that did it;
Sweet thoughts do *even* refresh my labors;
He is *even* great and terrible in his wrath;

or it may intimate that the sentence expresses an extreme case of a general proposition; being, in this use, placed before or after the word, phrase, or clause, on which the extreme character of the statement or supposition depends: thus, for example,

Even this stupid man is more useful than I am;
He was in debt to no man, not *even* to his tailor;
He (The man, or, Men) *even* would not do so;
I would not do so *even* if you were to threaten me;
The gain is *even* more remarkable than the loss.

Thus used, *even* is not one of the so-called parts of speech; for, although it resembles the adjective and especially the adverb, it is, as the above examples show, more general in its application. It seems to change, somewhat as does stress, the value of the expression with which it is connected. Accordingly, it may, from its origin, be described as an *adverbial particle* modifying the expression to which it is attached (the name *particle* is applied to any of the minor adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, or interjections, that have peculiar uses). And, in the case of *even* and words of similar value, the name *intensifying* may be added.

Particles.

Words
like *even*.

A few other words, expressing degree, as *only*, *merely*, *just*, *nearly*, *almost*, are sometimes used in ways that resemble those of *even* above, and they are to be described in the same way: thus, for example,

Only the king was there; A king *only* would do so;
Only he could do so; He *only* nodded, he did not speak;
 You are *just* the man; *Exactly* the sum was given him;
Just James (or James himself, or he, or himself) has
 them; no one else.

Such constructions shade off into those in which some of these words may be valued as adjectives or adverbs.

There,
expletive.

389. *There* is also peculiarly used when it fills up what seems to be a gap in the sentence owing to the transposition of the subject: thus, for example,

There is no money here; *There* can be no retreat;
There fell a frost; How can *there* be a loss?
There being no one at home, I went away;
There is no fear of *there* being a boy kept in.

Used thus, *there* is called an *expletive adverbial* particle (*expletive* means "filling up a gap").

Origin of
the idiom.

There, the ordinary adverb, means "in this place." Used as above, it is indefinite: the original meaning has been expanded without limit, so that it approaches remotely that of "in existence." Hence, *be*, which is usually a copula, means "exist," when it and *there* are taken together: so that "There is no money," means "No money is in existence (or exists)." And *there* is used with *be* in such sentences as the following, to express "existence"—a meaning *be* alone is not felt to possess in such constructions:

Other uses
of *there*.

Who is *there* to go? Is *there* anyone?
 The more *there* is, the more you will get.

But, with any other verb than the copula, *there* is really "expletive"; for all other verbs themselves imply existence.

Sentence
adverbs:
perhaps,
probably.

390. Some modal adverbs modify whole sentences, and may be called *sentence* adverbs: thus,

Perhaps he has gone; *Probably* he is here.

But the fact that, in the first example, the same meaning may be expressed by a change in the predicate; thus, "*He may have gone*," shows that such adverbs belong especially to the verb. They modify primarily the copula, which expresses the act of assertion (119 [1]): they thus characterize the reliability of the whole assertion—whether it is certain, probable, or doubtful. So, too, with phrases: thus,

Without doubt he has gone ;
To the best of my belief, he has gone.

When one of the components of the sentence is stressed, these modal adverbs are often placed near it, and seem to belong to it; but they are still sentence adverbs: thus, Position.

Probably *he* rode home (or, *he rode* home ; or, *he rode home*) ;
He probably *rode* home ; He rode *home*, probably.

391. Again, as is shown by the sentence "*Maybe* he has gone" (in which the phrasal compound *maybe* is shortened for "*It may be*"), some sentences, independent in form (apply par. 47) and often parenthetical are logically modal: thus, Modal sentences and phrases.

He has gone, *I fear* ; He has gone, *I have no doubt* ;
He is, *I think*, mistaken.

Phrases and clauses like those italicized in the following sentences, are of similar construction :

Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance ;
That is he yonder, *if I am not mistaken*.

Such constructions shade off into others in which the adverbial expression adds to the meaning (as do other adverbs ordinarily) without, however, limiting it (as do other adverbs): thus, Descriptive use.

Unfortunately he has gone ; *Happily* for us, he has gone ;
To my great disappointment, he has gone.

Here there is no limitation of the assertion that he has gone. The meaning is

He has gone, and this has happened unfortunately, etc. ;
and the adverbial expression is co-ordinate descriptive, resembling in function the descriptive adjective.

Interjec-
tional use.

As will also be seen later, such modal expressions shade off in others which seem unconnected with what we are saying, and which resemble interjections in that they merely intimate our states of feeling. Oaths, for example, belong here.

Not,
modifying:

392. The adverb *not* may modify a sentence, a clause, a phrase, or a word: thus, for example, in

(1). A sen-
tence.

I will *not* do so, because you have asked me (not to do so); which may mean

My doing so will *not* be owing to your request; the *not* belongs to the complex sentence; but, in

I will *not* do so; for (sometimes, *because* [426]) you have asked me;

where the meaning is

My *not* doing so will be owing to your request;

(2). A clause.

the *not* belongs to the first clause only. So, too, *not* modifies the subordinate clause in

I will do so, *not* because you have asked me.

Again in

He did it, *not* for lucre but for love;

(3). A phrase.

the *not* modifies the phrase *for lucre*; and, in

Is he *not* penitent (= "impenitent")? He is not penitent;

(4). A word.

it modifies the word *penitent*; but it is a sentence adverb in

He *isn't* penitent.

yes, no

393. The words *yes* and *no*, which are used in responding to a question, and are, therefore, called *responsives* (*affirmative* and *negative*), were originally adverbs, but are so no longer, because they are in themselves complete answers. Thus, for example, in answer to the question "Will you go?" *yes* and *no* mean respectively "I will go," and "I will not go." The responsives thus stand for a whole sentence, and hence are not properly "parts of speech" (33). They are most analogous to the interjection. Besides *yes*, *ay* (another form of *aye*) is sometimes used as an affirmative responsive. *Yea* and *nay* were, until recently, in general use, as well as *yes* and *no*.

ay, yea, nay.

394. *Yes* and *no* may be made to signify difference in the speaker's state of mind, according to the tone used in pronouncing them: thus, in connection with the statement "He is mad," we may say,

Other uses of
yes, no;
yea, nay.

<i>Yes</i> (acquiescent)	meaning	"He is mad";
<i>Yes</i> (deliberate)	"	"He may be mad";
<i>No</i> (incredulous)	"	"You don't say so";
<i>No</i> (contradictory)	"	"He is not mad";

and so on. Here *yes* and *no* are a commentary on a statement, not a reply. Indeed, the thought or feeling in the speaker's mind may be added in a way that resembles apposition: thus,

Yes; he is mad; Yes; he may be mad;
No; you don't say so!

In sentences like the last example, the responsive being exclamatory, closely resembles the interjection.

In older English, *yea* and *nay* are used as sentence adverbs in the sense of "truly," "indeed": thus, for example,

Yea, hath God said, "Ye shall not eat of every tree in the garden";

"Were he my brother, yea, my kingdom's heir."

395. In older English, two and even three negatives were regularly used to emphasize the negative: thus, for example, in Ascham,

Use of more
negatives
than one.

No sonne, were he never so old of years, might not marry.

And, even in Modern English, the same construction is found occasionally, one of the negatives, however, being also a connective: thus,

I never did see him again, nor never shall;
The property of no empire, nor the grandeur of no king,
can so agreeably affect, etc.

But careful writers avoid this form of expression. Two negatives are now equivalent to an affirmative, except in vulgar English, in which the older usage still prevails, the effect being that of emphasis by repetition, just as in the case of double comparatives and superlatives (345): thus, for example,

There weren't no pies equal to hers.

OTHER FORMS OF ADVERBS.

WORDS.

Other parts
of speech.

396. Nouns and ordinary adjectives we have already seen (146 and 380) are used as adverbs. A few of the other parts of speech are also so used: thus, for example,

Truth administered *scalding* (part.) hot repels;
The prohibitionists are *fighting* mad;
He is *somewhat* (pron.) arrogant in manner;
Bang (interj.) goes the gun;
Tramp, tramp (verb) across the land, they speed;
Splash, splash, across the sea.

And, on account of their demonstrative character, we find *this* and *that* as adverbs, often in colloquial use, and sometimes even in literature. Examples are

that high, this far, that much, this much.

PHRASES.

Some not
easily
analyzed.

397. (1). Adverb phrases are often not easily analyzed, either because they contain words that are rarely or never found except in these phrases (154): thus,

by stealth, of yore, at random, in lieu;

or because they are of irregular construction, being made up of a preposition with an object which is ordinarily an adjective: thus,

in vain, of old, at all, on high, ere long, for good.

And, as we have seen (384), such phrases have given us many derivative adverbs, more or less modified by stress and other causes.

Ordinary
phrases.

(2). There are also many adverb phrases that admit of analysis: thus, for example,

For all his poverty, he lives a happy life;
Without going far, you can easily settle the matter;
Upon being made president, he stole the policy of his opponents;
Spring having come, the flowers are in bloom;
We got to sea, the admiral being with us.

In the last example, we have the nom. abs. used like an adverbial adjective (150), here descriptive; and, in the

preceding one, the nom. abs. is an ordinary adverb-phrase of time or cause—the other value of the nominative absolute.

CLAUSES.

398. The adverb clause usually modifies a verb; much less often, an adjective; and (as is also the case with the simple adverb [26]) an adverb rarely, except in the way of defining a degree. The adverb clause is introduced by a great variety of conjunctions, and it has the same variety of meanings which belong to the simple adverb. The classification given below is not absolute; for the different classes shade off into one another, and the same conjunction has a variety of uses, as the examples given partly show.

Many
varieties.

Thus we have adverb clauses:

(1). Of *place*: for example,

(1). Place.

He lay where he fell;
You can go where (= "whither") you please;
Whither I go, ye cannot come; I go whence I came.

(2). Of *time*: for example,

(2). Time.

When I awoke, it was one o'clock;
He smiles when (= "whenever") one speaks to him;
Come down ere my child die.

(3). Of *manner* and *degree*: for example,

(3). Manner
and degree.

He does as he likes; I was as tired as ever man was (tired);
They are better than we had expected;
The higher you go, the more difficult is the ascent;
He is greater than I am (great).

As we shall see later, *than*- and *as*-clauses are usually abbreviated.

In complex sentences in which the principal clause contains an adverb and the subordinate clause a correlative conjunction, the adverb and the clause together modify the same word (logically the clause modifies the word and its modifying adverb): thus, for example, in

Abbreviated
forms.

I am *as* (= "to the degree") tired *as* (= "in which degree") any man was;

as and the *as*-clause together modify *tired*. So, too, in

The higher you go, the more difficult is the ascent,
the higher you go modifies *more*, which is itself modified by the demonstrative *the* (361); just as in

I will give you this book which I have in my hand,
this and the *which*-clause together modify *book*.

(4). Cause.

(4). Of *cause*: for example,

Since you say so, we believe it; As you are here, I will go;
 The hireling fleeth, because he is a hireling;
 I must go now; not that I want to go, but that I must;
 Thou thinkest him a hero that he did so;
 And, for that wine is dear, we will be furnished with our own.

(5). Result
and effect.(5). Of *result* and *effect*: for example,

He was so weak that he fell;
 His ideas are in such confusion that he is unintelligible;
 He shouted till the woods rang;
 Is he an oracle that we should look up to him?
 What were you doing that you were late?
 Am I a child that you should speak thus to me?

In the first example, *that he fell* and *so* together modify *weak* (logically the adverb clause modifies *so weak*); and, in the second, the adverb clause modifies *such*, as it would modify logically *so great* if we made this substitution.

(6). End or
purpose.(6). Of *end* or of *purpose* ("final cause"): thus, for example,

He died that we might live;
 Ye shall not touch it, lest ye die;
 He comes (or, came) to school, lest he should fail.

Sequence
of tenses

The rules for the sequence of tenses (282) apply here when the subordinate clause is introduced by *that*; but, after *lest*, the only auxiliary to use is *should* (which is past in form but indefinite as to time [221]), whatever be the tense in the principal clause.

(7). Con-
dition and
concession.(7). Of *condition* and *concession* (219 [4] and [5] and 220). Conditional and concessive clauses are opposite in force; thus, for example,

If you are strong, you will succeed;
 Though he was strong, he did not succeed;

are equivalent to

Be strong *and* you will succeed;
 He was strong *but* did not succeed.

Three
classes.

399. The realization of the consequence in conditional and concessive sentences (that is, complex sentences, having the subordinate clause conditional or concessive), varies according as the conditional or the concessive clause represents what is treated as an open

question, or as an imaginary case (pure supposition), or as impossible: thus, for example,

(a). Open:

If you are strong, you are self-reliant;
 Unless you are strong, you are not self-reliant;
 It never rains, but (= "if not") it pours;
 Though you are strong, you are not self-reliant;
 If that be (or, is) so, I shall go;
 If you go, shall I see you?
 If thou be the son of God, command, etc.;
 Though that be so, I shall not go.

(b). Imaginary:

If I were to become mad, I might do so;
 Do not forget him, even if you should never see him again;
 You would not succeed, though you should do so.

(c). Impossible:

If thou hadst been here, my brother had not died;
 Though thou hadst been here, my brother would have died.

400. Such sentences as the following are also conditional, although the condition is concealed or omitted in some (220), and the consequence is omitted in the last:

One clause
 omitted or
 concealed.

It would be folly to *do so* (= "if one did so");
 Life *piled on life* (= "if it were, etc.)
 Were all too little;

This kiss would wake the dead (if it were given);
 I could frame a wish for thee (if I tried);

Thy elder brother would I be (if it were possible);
 If I were covetous (I should be rich), how am I so poor?

And, as we shall see later, an ellipsis of the consequence is common with such phrases of conditional comparison as *as if*, *than if*: thus,

He looks as (he would look) if he were rich;
 He is now richer than (he would be rich) if he had gone
 to the Klondyke.

401. In older English and in poetry we find archaic conjunctions or conjunction phrases of condition: thus, for example,

Archaic
 conditional
 conjunctions.

Yet what is death, *so* it be glorious?
 Catch me *an* (= "if") thou canst;
So as men live in peace, they die free from strife;
 The chronicle were welcome *that* (= "if it") should call
 Into the compass of distinct regard
 The toil and struggles of thy infancy.

Conditional
inversion.

402. So far we have dealt with conditional clauses introduced by conjunctions. The condition is, however, often expressed by the inversion of the order of the subject and predicate. This construction has grown out of the interrogative sentence: thus, for example, we can say

Had'st thou been here, he had not died;
None will listen, criest thou never so loud;

instead of

if thou had'st been here;
if (or though) thou criest never so loud.

This is called *conditional inversion*, or the sentence is said to be an *inverted conditional* sentence.

How
produced:

403. The change of construction from the interrogative to the conditional is easily made: thus, for example,

Did you see him? Then you would know this;
Did you see him? You would know this;
Did you see him, you would know this.

Such sentences as

Should you see him, you would find him changed;
Be it a trifle, it should be done well;

owe the order of the subordinate clause to the original interrogative construction, and the mood to the later conditional construction.

Interrogative
still used.

In Modern English, the interrogative form is still used for the condition: thus,

Is any afflicted? Let him pray;
Is my master a little out of order? The first question is, etc.

whether .. *or*.

404. On the supposition of an original question, we may also explain the use of *whether* .. *or* in such sentences as

Whether you go *or* stay, all will be well;

whether being originally interrogative and the subordinate clause being now equivalent to "if you either go or stay." For conditional clauses with the compound conjunctives, *whatever*, etc., see par. 279, 9, (b).

Imperative in
a condition.

405. Like the interrogative, the imperative sentence is sometimes used to express a condition: thus,

Fling but a stone, the giant dies;
Let earth unbalanced from her orbit fly,
Planets and suns run lawless through the sky.

And the imperatives *suppose*, *admit*, *grant*, and *say* (some of which, in their weakened sense, may be valued as conjunctions) are used to introduce conditional clauses: thus,

Some imperative and participial conjunctions.

Suppose he fail, what matter does it make?
Say I be entertained, what then shall follow?

So, too, some participles in the absolute construction, by the omission of *that*: thus,

You shall have it *provided* it pleases you;
 where the full construction would be

that it pleases you *being* provided.

406. The conjunction introducing a clause often has a correlative adverb of kindred meaning, in the clause to which the clause so introduced, is subordinate, answering toward it much the same purpose as the antecedent to the conjunctive pronoun: thus,

Correlatives.

Where the bee sucks, *there* suck I;
When the heart beats no more, *then* the life perishes;
If I speak false, *then* may my father perish;
Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust him;
As I entered, *so* will I retire.

And adverbs of manner and degree are apt to be followed by correlative conjunctions; as *so* by *that*; *so* and *as* by *as*; a comparative adverb—*more*, *less*, and the like—by *than*; *the* by *the* (361). Out of this usage grow a number of conjunction phrases, as *so as*, *so that*, *so far as*, *according as*, and so on.

Conjunctive phrases.

LOGICAL VALUES OF ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS.

407. Adverbial modifiers are usually limiting; but, as in the case of adjectives (but less frequently) adverbial words, phrases, and clauses are used merely to describe. This use in the case of words and phrases has already been noticed in par. 391. It is especially common with clauses introduced by an adverbial conjunction of the *where* series (less frequently in *as*-clauses [325] and [372]): thus,

Usually limiting; sometimes purely descriptive.

I ate my dinner, *when* (= "and then") he desired me to leave;
 He lives at Paris—*where* is it possible you have never been? (50);
 He will be here to-morrow—*when* please call again (51).

XII. PREPOSITIONS.

Originally
adverbs.

408. Prepositions did not exist in the earliest stages of the development of language. The oldest prepositions were at first adverbs, often prefixed to verbs (hence the name "*preposition*"). Gradually when cases began to lose their force, they became auxiliaries to nouns and pronouns to define more clearly their relation in the sentence. Hence the statement that prepositions govern the objective case is not historically correct. And, as we have seen (376), the same word is often used as a preposition, an adverb, or a conjunction, or as two of these parts of speech, or as all three.

Origin of
relations.

409. The relations expressed by prepositions, as used at first, were relations of place, and then, by degrees, time, cause, and manner; thus, for example, in the case of *from* :

to be *from* home; to come *from* England;
to stay *from* morning till evening; to come *from* fear;
to happen *from* no fault of mine.

Not classified.

The number of the prepositions is considerably less than a hundred; but, as we have just seen in the case of *from*, they each express a variety of relations. We, therefore, do not attempt to classify them on the basis of meaning.

Connection
with words.

410. From their nature or from usage, particular words are followed by particular prepositions, although there may be other prepositions with the same meaning.

Some words take prepositions that harmonize with their composition; thus, for example,

absolve from, conversant with, involve in, comply with.

Some, again, are used with particular prepositions that do not harmonize with their original meaning; thus, for example,

Abhorrent to, averse to, alien to, connive at.

Others are followed by more than one preposition, each expressing a different relation; thus, for example,

to get <i>at</i> facts;	to entrust a thing to one;
“ <i>over</i> a fever;	“ one <i>with</i> a thing;
“ on <i>with</i> a person;	to look after the house;
“ <i>out of</i> debt;	“ <i>at</i> a person or thing;
“ to a journey’s end;	“ <i>into</i> a matter;
to take <i>after</i> one’s father;	“ <i>for</i> what is lost;
“ one <i>for</i> a thief;	“ <i>over</i> an account;
“ <i>to</i> anything;	“ <i>through</i> an account;
“ <i>upon</i> oneself;	“ <i>out of</i> a window.

A few words, again, are used with more than one preposition to express the same, or almost the same, relation; thus, for example,

to expect *of* (or *from*) one; kind *in* (or *of*) you;
to die *of* (*from*, *with*) hunger.

The proper use of the preposition is a matter of idiom, and, in cases of doubt, is best learned from a good dictionary and especially from the best writers and speakers; for language is always changing.

How best
learned.

FORMATION.

411. The oldest prepositions are simple, as *at*, *by*, *for*. Others, of later formation, are derivatives, or compounds, or phrases consisting of independent words used relationally, of Old English and Romanic origin: thus, for example,

Oldest,
simple.

(1). Imperfect or perfect participles, originally in the nominative absolute construction;

Derivatives:
From the
absolute
construction

(a). With the quasi-subject (or, nominative) expressed; for example,

during the winter; that is, the winter *during* (or “lasting”);
notwithstanding this; that is, this *notwithstanding*;
past the place; that is, the place (having been) *passed*;
pending the event; that is, the event *pending*;
all *except* the boy; that is, all, the boy (being) *except*;
a year *ago*; that is, a year (being) *ago*.

During the Middle and Early Mod. Eng. periods, the tongue-stop suffix (192) was not added to many perf. participles of Latin origin (as *except* above), which, having been recently introduced, retained some of their original meaning. The legal term *situate* is also a survival of this usage.

except.

ago.

Ago (older *agone*, "gone by") may also (and better) be now valued as an adverb of time, modified by the preceding adverbial objective, as are *hence* and *since* in "an hour hence," "a day *since*."

(b). Without any quasi-subject expressed (the impersonal use of the absolute construction); thus, for example,

. *Considering* the distance, you have come early;
 Owing to the distance, you have come late;
 Tell me *regarding* (*concerning*, *touching*, etc.) your journey.

In (a) when the participle became converted into a preposition, the original nom. abs. became the objective after it; and in (b) the nominative disappeared. No doubt some of the forms are due to analogy.

Comparatives

(2). Comparatives:

after <O.E. *æf-ter*; *ere* (conj. or in "or ever") <O.E. *ær*;
 over <O.E. *ofer*, comp. connected with *up* and *ove* in "above."

Compounds
and other
derivatives.

(3). Compound and other derived prepositions:

(a). From other prepositional or adverbial elements:

unto, upon, underneath, before, behind, above,
 toward(s), within, throughout.

(b). From nouns and adjectives:

among(st), across, beside(s), amid, between,
 around, aslant, along.

Phrases.

(4). There are besides many phrases, combinations of independent words, used relationally, which may be valued as preposition phrases (152). Examples are

out of, from out, as to, as for, on this side, alongside,
 in front of, by way of, because of, for the sake of,
 instead of, in lieu of, according to,
 in respect (or, regard) to;

and many others. An expression like *as regards*, which is shortened for *so far as it regards*, may also be valued as a preposition phrase, meaning "concerning," or "in regard to."

PECULIAR WORDS.

412. As we have already seen (408), the preposition was originally connected closely with the verb. It still tends to attach itself especially to a verbal

word, with, however, different logical values: thus, for example, in

a horse to ride *on*; people worth speaking *with*;
a matter often looked *into*; a place for pitching one's tent *in*;
This chair has been sat *upon* by students;

on, *with*, *into*, *in*, and *upon* are each part of a phrase, being closely connected with the verbal word (compare the relation of the prefix in a derivative). Like adverbs, these words modify the verbal word with which they are connected, and, although they are not followed by an object, they possess some preposition value. This is seen especially in the last example, which is the passive of

Adverbial
prepositional
particles.

Students have sat upon this chair;

and in which *have sat upon* forms a transitive verb-phrase.

The words *upon*, *in*, *with*, etc., thus used, are partly adverbs and partly prepositions, and may be described as **adverbial prepositional** particles modifying the expressions to which they are attached.

Two intermediate stages of this conversion of the ordinary preposition are seen in such sentences as

John is the name (which) he answers *to*;
ties all ties *above*; travels the whole world *over*;

in which *to*, *above*, and *over* are still prepositions but less markedly so than in the regular construction.

413. In such constructions, again, as

For me to die is great gain,

For, an
introductory
prepositional
particle.

for also has only part of the grammatical value of the ordinary preposition, but this value is different from that of *on*, *upon*, etc., above. Whereas the preposition, in the usual construction, has two terms (the latter being in the objective), *on*, *upon*, etc., above (412), have only the first term, while *for* has only the second. *For*, thus used, may, therefore, be called an **introductory prepositional** particle.

In such constructions as the following, *for* has, of course, its full preposition value :

The wind sits fair *for* news to go to Ireland ;
The night is too dark *for* us to see.

Origin of the idiom.

414. The introductory prepositional particle *for* is probably due to the influence of the archaic *for to*, a preposition phrase introduced when the *to* of the O. E. gerundial infinitive began to lose its preposition value: thus, for example,

What went ye out *for to* see?

If ye will not suffer my children *for to* pass, etc.;

conjoined to the fact that the construction without the *for* (found, for example, in Chaucer and other Middle English writers) in such a sentence as

No wonder is a lewed man to rust (= "No wonder it is *for* a common man to rust");

does not mark precisely the relation of the infinitive and its subject to the rest of the sentence.

Nom. after *save*, *but*.

415. The nominative case is sometimes found after *save* (O. Fr. *sauf*, "safe") and *but*, both in Elizabethan English and in present poetry: for example,

No man hath seen the Father *save he* which is of God ;

Nor never none (395)

Shall be mistress of it *save I* alone.—SHAKESPEARE ;

Where nothing *save the waves and I*

Shall hear our mutual murmurs sweep.—BYRON ;

What stays have I *but they*.—SHAKESPEARE.

This construction is found in still older stages of the language and is apparently due to the confusion between prepositions and conjunctions especially in abbreviated sentences—a confusion which is still seen in vulgar English (433): thus, for example,

greater than *me*; as tall as *me*;

Nigh, and its derivatives.

416. The word *nigh* and its derivatives, *nigher*, *nighest*, *next*, *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*, which were originally followed by the dative case (271), may now be valued as transitive adverbs; that is, as prepositions, in those constructions in which they are followed by the objective case: thus, for example,

He sits *near* (*nearer*, *next*, etc.) my son and *me*.

As, however, owing to their origin, these words in such constructions are often not felt to have been fully converted into prepositions (as is shown by the frequent use of *to* after them), they may be valued as adverbs, the objective following them being also valued as adverbial; for, as we have already seen (271), *to* is not omitted. When the *to* is expressed, *near to*, etc., may be valued as preposition phrases, or the prepositional phrase beginning with *to* may be valued as adverb.

In the case of *like*, *unlike*, etc., in such constructions as

like, unlike, etc.

She walks *like* (*unlike*, etc.) a goddess (or, *her*).

although its function resembles that of *near*, etc., above, it is better, owing to its meaning (409), to value it as an adverb, the objective following being its adverbial modifier.

In vulgar English, *like* is often used as a conjunction (by analogy); thus, "He walked *like* I do," but this construction is not reputable, and we have *as* to express the relation. In "He walked *like* John," *like* cannot be a conjunction, as we see when we substitute for *John* a personal pronoun.

417. Constructions with *but* occasionally present difficulties. Some of those in which it is followed by a noun clause we have already considered (279 [6]). Its original meaning may be seen in its other preposition constructions; thus, for example,

Constructions with *but*.

I cannot *but* believe; that is, "except believe";
He was all *but* ruined; that is, "all except (being)
ruined";

But for you, he would, etc.; that is, "except for you."

In these constructions, the expression after *but* is an objective noun.

418. We have already seen that, like the verb, which it resembles in the so-called governing power, the preposition may be followed by an objective predicate adjective (151) especially in the construction which in present English often replaces the absolute

Another construction after prepositions.

construction (150). We also find prepositional phrases used in this construction: thus, for example,

Know thou me *for thy liege lord*;
We have Abraham *to our father*.

OMISSION.

Apparent.

419. The preposition is often omitted, the logical relation of the two terms being inferred from their position and the context. Examples are

What age are you? He was my height; busy working (361);
On board a man-of-war; He is this side of the river;
She sat her horse, man fashion;

where *what age*, *my height*, *a man-of-war*, and *this side of the river* are adjective; and *working* and *man fashion* are adverb—the values of the prepositional phrases. Here, however, *this side of* may be valued as a preposition phrase.

For the omission of the preposition before clauses, see par. 279 (a) and (b).

Real.

But sometimes in present and often in earlier English, a construction which seems to be due to the omission of a preposition is really due to the use of an object which represents an old case; thus, for example,

This is worth two pounds; He is worthy your notice;

in which *pounds* and *notice* (once accusatives) are to be valued as adverbial objectives. So, too, generally with objectives of space, time, manner (145), the objectives after *nigh*, *like*, etc. (271), the objectives after an interjection (155), and the archaic construction with *woe* (271); although in these cases, the relation may be (and sometimes now is also) expressed by a preposition.

XIII. CONJUNCTIONS.

FORMATION.

420. As we have already seen (47), conjunctions are of comparatively late growth. They have been formed in various ways, mostly from other parts of speech: thus, for example, from

Mostly from
other parts
of speech.

pronouns: *that, hence, whether, both;*
 adjectives: *provided, except;*
 adverbs: *consequently, lastly, now, namely;*
 prepositions: *but, for, since, before;*
 verbs: *say, suppose, to wit, videlicet (viz.)*

As we have also seen (376), many words can be used both as conjunctions, and as adverbs or prepositions or both; only a few words, indeed, are used solely as conjunctions, as *and, nor*. Many words also, ordinarily prepositions, and some words ordinarily participles or imperatives (405), are now used as conjunctions, especially by the omission of *that*, which once followed them. In Modern English, this use of *that* has disappeared except in a few conjunction phrases, as *in that, save that, but that*.

That omitted.

On the other hand, in old style English, *that* (owing to its derived conjunctive value [312]) was often inserted after words which were originally interrogatives, in order to give them a conjunctive force: thus, for example, in Shakespeare,

That inserted.

When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept;

and it may still be used, for the same purpose, after some adverbs: thus, for example,

Once (or, Now) that he is here, I may go.

By analogy, *that* was also used in old style English even after words that had a conjunctive value: thus, for example, in Shakespeare,

Lorenzo and Salerio, welcome hither,
If that the youth of my new interest here
 Have power to bid you welcome.

while.

The conjunction *while*, older *while that*, *the while that* <O.E. *thá hwile (that)*, which was originally a noun meaning "time," in the adverbial accusative, has come to be associated with the *where*-series of conjunctions owing to the accident of its also beginning with *wh*.

Origin of
that.

The introductory *that* of the noun clause was originally a neuter demonstrative pronoun, to which the following clause was appositive. In the course of time *that* became reduced to a mere sign of subordination : thus,

I do not think *that* (namely) he is here ;
I came after *that* (namely) he had gone.

CLASSES.

421. We have already noticed, in a general way, both co-ordination (40) and subordination (43), and, in detail, the different classes of connectives; namely, pure conjunctions; and words that are partly conjunctions, and partly pronouns or pronominal adjectives or pronominal adverbs. We have now to add some further particulars in regard to the different kinds of conjunctions.

Adverbial,
Ordinary.

The conjunctions, both co-ordinate and subordinate, may be classified as *adverbial*: that is, those that not only connect clauses but logically modify the whole clause they introduce; and as *ordinary*: that is, those that merely connect clauses and show their relations; thus, for example, in

I stay *and* he goes ; I stay *if* he goes ;

and and *if* are ordinary conjunctions; but, in

I stay ; *therefore* he goes ; I stay *when* he goes ;

therefore and *when* are adverbial conjunctions.

Other examples are :

Ordinary co-ordinate :

for, but, either, or, both, and, neither, nor.

Adverbial co-ordinate :

therefore, so (colloquial), hence, still, consequently, accordingly; yet, nevertheless; further, moreover.

Ordinary subordinate :

that, after, before, ere, till, since, because, lest, unless,
except, though, than.

Adverbial subordinate :

the *where*-series—simple and compound ; and
whether (and *if*) in subordinate questions.

422. Both classes of co-ordinate conjunctions connect their clauses logically. The adverbial co-ordinate conjunctions alone do not necessarily connect the clauses formally (that is, by standing at the head of the second clause); and (like *even* [388]) they often attach themselves to the emphatic word: thus, for example, we say

Differences
and
resemblances

I stay ; *nevertheless* he goes (or, he *nevertheless* goes ;
or, he goes, *nevertheless*).

The connection made by the ordinary co-ordinate conjunctions is also usually closer than that made by the adverbial co-ordinate conjunctions. So that we often find the clauses connected by the former, either separated by a comma or written without a punctuation mark, while those connected by the latter are usually separated by a semicolon or a punctuation mark showing a longer pause.

Ordinary.

Again, while the adverbial co-ordinate conjunctions never refer back to a particular word in the first clause, the subordinate adverbial conjunctions often do: thus, for example, in

Adverbial.

He went to town, *therefore*, I will stay ;
He went to the town *where* I stay ;

therefore is an adverb in its own clause, and connects it as a whole with the first clause as a whole ; whereas *where* is an adverb in its own clause, and connects it as a whole with the first clause, the *where*-clause being adjective to the word *town*.

423. When taking up the structure of the compound sentence (41 and 42) we classified the co-ordinate conjunctions that are used to connect clauses, and we considered in a general way the relations these conjunctions express. Having also examined under

Classes of
subordinate
conjunctions.

various heads the different varieties of subordinate clauses, we may now classify, on the basis of meaning, the conjunctions that are used to connect these clauses; remembering, however, that the same conjunction has often a great variety of uses and meanings. The subordinate conjunctions may be classified as:

(1). Of *place* and *time*: thus,

where, when, whenever, as, while (whilst), until, before.

By some English speakers and writers, *directly* and *immediately* are now used for *as soon as*: for example,

Directly (or, *Immediately*) he got in, the train started;

but this usage is neither reputable nor national, and should not be imitated.

(2). Of *cause*: thus,

because, since, whereas, for that (archaic).

(3). Of *condition* and *concession*: thus,

if, unless (= "if — not") except, provided, though, although, notwithstanding, albeit (arch.), without (colloquial).

(4). Of *end* or *purpose*: thus,

that, so that, lest (= "that—not, so that—not"—colloquial),
in order that.

(5). Of *manner* and *degree* (including comparison): thus,

as, than.

(6). Of *result* or *effect*: thus,

that, till.

(7). *Substantive*; that is, those introducing noun clauses:

that, whether, if, why, how.

Special
comments:

424. We have now to add a few particulars in regard to the uses and meanings of some conjunctions.

and, or, nor,
etc.

As we have already seen (45), some of the co-ordinate conjunctions, as *and, or, nor, but, for*, are often formally (not logically) detached from the preceding context, and stand at the beginning of a sentence or a paragraph; so that the relation they show is looser and more comprehensive than when they formally connect clauses. One of

these conjunctions, for example, may even show the logical connection between two paragraphs.

425. As we have also seen (41), the relations between clauses are sometimes shown by correlative conjunctions: thus, for example, Correlatives.

Both he and I will go; *Either* he or I will go.

These correlatives are more emphatic than the single conjunctions. The first in a pair leads us to expect the second, and is, as it were, an outside prop to strengthen the relation. Other correlatives are

not only—but (or, but also), neither—nor,
though (or, although)—yet (or, still),
if—then, whether—or.

When *not only—but* (or, *but also*) is used the second statement is more important than the first; *both—and*, however, simply emphasizes the co-ordination.

Owing to the fact that *neither—nor* (n- neg.) is the negative of *either—or*, the following are equivalent in meaning: *Neither and nor.*

I knew *neither* the man *nor* the woman;
I did *not* know *either* the man *or* the woman;
I did *not* know the man, *and* I did *not* know the woman;

for, when we deny alternatives separately, we logically deny the affirmative statements. Hence, *nor* is used for *and not*, and we have such mixed copulative and alternative co-ordination as is seen in the following examples:

John was *not* there; *nor* was James;
“ “ “ “ *neither* was James;
“ “ “ “ *and neither* was James;
“ “ “ “ *and James was not either.*

426. Some conjunctions and conjunction phrases express condition along with other relations: thus, for example, Condition with other relations.

Come in; *otherwise* (or, colloquial) you will get wet;
If (or, *Even if*) I went wrong, I have a good excuse;
He will fail *whether* he does it *or not*;
He acts *as if* (or, *though*) he were the king;
He is richer *than if* he had gone to the Klondyke.

Here, besides condition, *otherwise* signifies that the second clause is the result of the non-observance of the command in the first, its meaning being “for, if you do not come in”; *if* expresses concession; *whether—or*, an alternative; and *as if*, *as though*, *than if* (conjunction phrases by sentence abbreviation), comparison.

for, because.

427. *For, because.* The co-ordinate *for* properly states the logical ground for a preceding statement, and the connection it makes is sometimes so loose that the *for*-clause seems an afterthought. The subordinate *because* introduces a clause which expresses the cause of what is predicated of the subject in its principal clause; so that it is a causal adverb clause. Sometimes, however, *for* and *because* are interchanged, especially when, so far as the sense is concerned, it is immaterial whether we take the *for*-clause as co-ordinate or subordinate. But there are cases in which *for* only should be used. Examples of the uses of these words are:

The soil is rich; *for* (not, *because*) the vegetation is rank;
The vegetation is rank; *because* (or, *for*) the soil is rich;
We came home *because* the doors were closed; *for* such
were the master's orders;

My brother came to my rescue; *for* he happened to be
present.

whether, or.

428. *Whether—or.* These correlatives are ordinary conjunctions when they connect principal interrogative clauses; but subordinate, in alternative conditional clauses: thus,

Whether will you go or stay?
I will go *whether* you go or stay.

Whether in
subordinate
questions.

In a subordinate question, *whether* is adverbial subordinate: thus,

I will ask him *whether* (or, *if*) he will go.

although no interrogative word is used in the direct question.

or.

429. The alternative *or* may exclude one alternative, or it may include both, or it may signify that there is only a verbal alternative—that the terms are synonymous: thus, for example,

Will you go or will you not? I want two or three books;
Boys like James or John are sure to succeed;
The premier, or chief of the cabinet, opened the fair.

but.

430. *But*, which, as we have seen (279 [6]), was originally a preposition, may sometimes (owing to the omission of *that*) be valued as a subordinate conjunction: thus, for example,

It never rains *but* (= "if not") it pours;
Perdition catch my soul *but* (= "if not") I do love thee;
It cannot be *but* (= "that not") he has gone.

431. *Now, well.* These are sometimes used like copulative co-ordinate conjunctions to introduce a new statement; *now*, as an explanation of one preceding; and *well*, as a commentary on it, expressive also of some feeling; so that it is somewhat interjectional: thus, for example,

Then cried they all again, saying, "Not this man, but Barabbas." *Now*, Barabbas was a robber;
You have come, have you? *Well*, it is more than I expected.

PECULIAR WORDS.

432. In such sentences as

The soldiers were there *as well as* the sailors;
The soldiers *as well as* the sailors were there;

the phrase *as well as* really connects two clauses *as well as*, co-ordinately; but, in

The soldiers were there *as well*;
The soldiers *as well* were there;

as well resembles a sentence adverb, attaching itself (compare *even* [388]) to the word with which it is more particularly connected in sense and which in that case is stressed: thus, for example,

Adverbial
conjunctive
particles.

The soldiers *as well* were there (that is, *as well as* the sailors);
The soldiers were there *as well* (that is, *as well as* somewhere else).

Likewise, also, too, and a few other words are used in the same way. Such words have not lost all their conjunction value, for they suggest an additional thought or notion. They may be described as *adverbial conjunctive* particles. So, too, the subordinate *though* in such a sentence as

He is sure to be there, *though*.

Of a similar nature is the use of the prepositional phrase in the following:

Adverbial
prepositional
particles.

The father *with his son* was well treated;

where the phrase is so closely connected with *father* that there is a tendency to make the verb plural (117), but where it might also be taken with the verb. Hence such expressions as *besides, in addition*, may be

described as *adverbial prepositional* particles in such sentences as

He besides (or, in addition) rides on horse back ;
He rides besides on horse back ;
He rides on horse back besides ;

where they are attached, like modifiers, to particular expressions, and imply a second term.

433. In such constructions as

That he was there cannot be true ;

That, as
introductory
conjunctive
particle.

that has only a part of its conjunctive value (just as *for* in one construction, is only partly a preposition [413]). In its ordinary use, it shows the relation between two clauses, introducing the subordinate one; here, it merely introduces the noun-clause. In this use (which is, of course, a direct result of its origin [420]) *that* may be called an *introductory conjunctive* particle.

and, that

In all noun clauses, indeed, the conjunction *that* is merely a sign of subordination, and has so little meaning that it is very often omitted. So, too, *and* is merely a sign of co-ordination. It shows no special kind of connection; and, like *that*, it is often omitted. *And* and *that*, therefore, express the simplest kind of co-ordination and subordination.

Construction
after *than*
and *as*.

434. After the comparative conjunctions *than* and *as*, the clauses are often shortened: thus, for example,

He is better *than* I (am) ; He is as tall *as* I (am)

this shortening has led careless and inaccurate speakers to confound these conjunctions with prepositions, and to use the objective case after them (415). This usage, though common in colloquial English and found sometimes in literature is not reputable except in the case of the conjunctive pronoun *whom*, the use of which for *who*, after *than*, has long been sanctioned: thus, for example, in Milton,

Which when Beelzebub perceived, *than whom*,
 Satan except (411 [1]), none higher sat.

And, an
intensifying
particle.

435. We have noticed above (423), the use at the beginning of a sentence of certain co-ordinate conjunctions. *And*, however, has a use peculiar to itself.

In older English, it was often used as an *intensifying* particle (compare *even* [388]): thus, for example,

He that has *and* a tiny little wit.—SHAKESPEARE;
When that I was *and* a tiny little boy.—SHAKESPEARE;

The Perse out of Northumberlande,
And a vow to God made he.—PERCY'S RELIQUES.

It dies *and if* (= "even if") it had a thousand lives.

In Modern English, *and* has a use that resembles this: thus, for example,

And art thou cold and lowly laid?

This *and*, however, may be now taken as connecting an expressed thought with one preceding and not expressed by the speaker or some one else, although probably it is, in origin, the intensifying particle. We find a somewhat similar use of *and* in such sentences as

Its modern
uses.

That the foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow (150);

where it is unnecessary as a connective but where it emphasizes the expression that follows. So, too, in such sentences as

God help her, *and that* right early;
Chaucer often hits the mark, *and that* by means the least
expected;
He rode several races for Sir Thomas, *and this* with such
expertness, etc.,

where *that* (rarely *this*) represents the preceding sentence repeated, with an emphatic addition. Analogous expressions are

I heard a humming, *and that* a strange one too;
With short intervals of sleep, *and those* entirely filled
with dreams;
She had one foe, *and that one* foe the world.

XIV. INTERJECTIONS.

436. We have seen (31) that interjections may be divided into two classes—primary and secondary—according as they have originated in spontaneous utterances or grammatical forms. We have also seen that the interjection is not a mere expression of feeling like a cry or a groan: it is the means by which we communicate our feelings to others. We now add a few particulars. Some interjections, as *ah!*, *aha!*, *alas!*, simply show our emotions; others, again, as *lo!*, *look!*, *hush!*, have partly the value of imperatives, being used to influence others. Expressions of asseveration also, as *indeed!*, *to be sure!*, *I declare!*, up to the strongest oaths, are of the nature of interjections; being, some of them, however, more emotional than words like *lo!*, and less so than words like *alas!*. And, as we have seen (53), assertive, imperative, and interrogative sentences and even subordinate clauses partake of the nature of the interjection, when they are used in exclamation. As we have also seen (155), the interjection is sometimes combined syntactically with other expressions, in exclamatory phrases; in this way also approaching the value of a part of speech, especially often resembling the verb: thus, for example,

Ah me!; Alas the day!; O horror!; O for a quiet spot!;
 O that you were here (obj.)!;
 Alas, that he has done so (adv.)!

And *O* is used with the nominative of address—the interjectional case of substantive words (273): thus,

O thou that rulest the heavens!; O mighty Cæsar!

CLASSES.

ACCORDING TO MEANING.

Classification,
a rough one.

437. Most of the ordinary English interjections are classified, on the basis of meaning, in the following list; some, however, showing different emotions according to the tone used in uttering them. But, as

we have seen above, there are many interjectional elements which, owing to their peculiarities, it would be difficult to include in a classification: such expressions are best described in accordance with their exceptional uses and meanings:

- (1). Of joy, glad surprise, pleasant emotion:

oh!, ah!, ha!, hey!, hurrah!, huzza!.

- (2). Of painful feeling or suffering:

oh!, ah!, alas!, well-a-day!, dear me!, heigh-ho!.

- (3). Of disapproval or contempt:

poh!, fie!, faugh!, fudge!, whew!, oh! oh!.

- (4). Of calling attention:

ho!, hullo!, halloo!, hem!, lo!.

- (5). Of quieting or repressing:

hist!, hush!, tut!, mum!.

- (6). Of approval or assent:

bravo!, hear! hear!, amen.

- (7). Words made in imitation of natural sounds are a kind of interjection: thus,

pop!, bang!, bow-wow!, ding-dong!, rub-a-dub!.

XV. INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

438. We have already considered the nature of the infinitive (including the gerund) and participle, and some of their simplest constructions (190-194). We have now to add some further particulars in regard to these peculiar words.

INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS.

USE AND OMISSION OF THE SIGN.

To, sometimes
separate.

The word *to* is so often used as part of the infinitive that it is then called its sign, and is to be considered and described as part of it. Sometimes another word, especially an adverb, is placed between the *to* and the rest of the infinitive: thus,

to immediately return; *to quickly* perform one's duties;
to both try the criminal and execute him.

This usage, however, though becoming more and more general, has not yet established itself.

Root
Infinitive.

There are very many cases in which the root-infinitive is used, not the gerundial infinitive:

Infinitive,
with or
without *to*.

(1). After the Old verbs *can* and *must*, and after *do*, *may*, *shall*, and *will*, both as auxiliaries and as independent verbs. *Ought* is always followed by *to*.

(2). After a few verbs, either usually or optionally, such as *dare* (185), the archaic *gin* (<M.E. *ginnen*, "to begin"; the O.E. *ginnan*, found mostly in compounds), *need* (175), *help*, and *please* and *go* in certain uses: for example,

Yet at her speech their rages gan *relent*.—SPENSER.
Please *go* home; *Go find* your master.

In older English the same construction is found with *come*: thus, for example,

I sent for you to *come speak* with me.—SHAKESPEARE.

(3). In certain peculiar or elliptical constructions:

(a). After *had* followed by *as lief* (or. *lieve*), *better*, *best*, *rather*, etc.: thus, for example,

I had as lief *be* none ; You had better *cease*.

Root infinitive
with peculiar
constructions.

(b). In comparative phrases like

As well *yield* at once as *struggle* vainly ;
He resolved, rather than *yield*, to die with honor.

When, however, the infinitive in the first clause has *to*, the same form is often maintained in the second: thus, for example,

It is as well *to yield* at once as *to struggle* vainly ;
He resolved *to die* with honor rather than *to yield*,

(c). After the preposition *but* (and, in some constructions, *except*) following a negative ; thus, for example,

I cannot but *be* sad ; They did nothing but (or, except)
idle about.

(d). When, owing to the emotion of the speaker, it is used absolutely in exclamations (that is, without any governing word) : thus, for example,

"How ! not *know* the friend that served you !"
Lewis marry Blanche ! O boy, then where art thou ?

(4). After certain verbs, when preceded by a word having the relation of object to these verbs, but also the logical value of a subject to the infinitive (447).

The most common of this class of verbs are *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *make*, *bid*, *have* (in the sense of "make" or "cause"), *know*, *find*. Examples are

I saw him *do* it ; He will have you *question* me.

After some of these, *to* is allowed, or is even more usual ; and, on the other hand, there are other verbs after which the *to* is occasionally omitted, especially in the archaic style: thus,

Infinitive
with *to*,
also used.

Do but speak what thou'lt have me *to do* ;
To bid me not *to love* is to forbid my pulse to move ;
Command the grave *restore* her taken prey (archaic) ;
Come, I charge you both *go* with me (archaic).

And, when the preceding verb is made passive, *to* is regularly used: thus,

He was seen *to do* it ; but he was let *go*.

Root
infinitive.

(5). Occasionally when it is a logical subject; but this usage is somewhat archaic: thus,

Better *dwell* in the midst of alarms than *reign* in this
horrible place;

Will't please you *hear* me? It were best not *know* myself?
Me lists not *tell* what words were said (289).

Effect of
omitting *to*.

439. When, at present, the omission of *to* is optional, its retention often emphasizes the meaning of the infinitive and produces a formal effect. In the case of *go* and *come*, a dislike for this formality, along with the analytical tendency of the language, has led to the following idiomatic constructions:

Go and see him; Come and tell me.

Elizabethan
usage.

During the Elizabethan period, and even later, the use of *to* was unsettled. Examples are

You ought not *walk* ; Suffer him *speak* no more;
Who heard me *to deny* it?

I durst, my lord, *to wager* she is honest;
I had rather be a doorkeeper in the house of my God, than
 to dwell in the tents of wickedness.

CONSTRUCTIONS COMMON TO INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS.

440. The root infinitive, the gerundial infinitive, and the gerund have in part the same and in part different uses. We take up first those constructions which are common to all.

As we have already seen (193), these forms are used as subject and as object of a verb, or as predicate noun with a verb; and, when subject or object, they may be anticipated by *it* as representative subject or object (299 [1] and [2]).

Either
gerund or
gerundial
infinitive.

There are many cases in which either the gerundial infinitive or the gerund may be used as object; but there are others in which usage allows only the one or the other of them: thus, for example,

He likes *to journey* (or, *journeying*) rapidly;
I intend *to start* (or, *starting*) to-morrow;
They resented *having been insulted* (not, *to have been insulted*).

As we have already seen (206), the infinitives that follow the auxiliaries are direct objects.

441. The gerundial infinitive is used nowadays as object of a preposition, almost wholly with *about*, in the peculiar sense of "concerned with," "being about," and so "on the point of"; and occasionally either the root or the gerundial infinitive is found after *but* and *except*. Examples are

After *about*,
but, *except*.

He is about *to depart* (or, about *departing*);
He could do nothing except *go*; He cannot choose but *hear*;
No course is open to him but (or, except) *to leave*.

In Modern English, the use of *for* before the gerundial infinitive (413) has disappeared except in vulgar English and when the infinitive has a subject (447): thus,

After *for*.

It is improper *for us to act* thus.

It is frequently to be met with in the literature of older English, usually expressing purpose: thus,

And all countries came into Egypt *for to buy* corn;
Therefore 'tis good and meet *for to be* wise;
Shame unto thy stock
That dar'st presume thy sovereign *for to mock*.

The root-infinitive is also to be met with in Middle English after the preposition *at*, a usage which is due to the Northern dialect. To this idiom the modern *ado* (that is, "at do") owes its origin.

Root
infinitive
after *at*.

442. On the other hand, the gerund is very common after a great variety of prepositions: thus,

Gerund,
common after
prepositions.

He is tired of *wasting* his time on trifles;
I know nothing about her *having done* it.
The horse is worn with *having been ridden* so hard;
On *becoming* king he reversed the policy of his father;
His dread of *being thought* stingy makes him liberal.

The omission of the preposition produces the following construction in which the gerunds are adverbial objectives (361):

Gerund
adverbial.

He was busy (at) *ploughing*; I am tired (of) *speaking* to you.

PECULIARITIES OF THE GERUND CONSTRUCTION.

443. The constructions of the gerund are especially peculiar in this: that it very often has before it a noun in the possessive, or a possessive adjective, signifying that to which the action expressed by the

With a
subjective
possessive.

gerund belongs. And this possessive has almost always the value of a subjective possessive (265 [1]): thus, for example,

Tom's being here was a lucky thing;
They insisted on *his following* them;
He knew of *my having been* left out;

are equivalent to

It was a lucky thing that Tom was here;
They insisted that he should follow them;
He knew that I had been left out.

With an
objective
possessive.

Occasionally, however, it has the value of an objective possessive (265 [2]): thus, for example,

the deep damnation of *his taking off*;

where the equivalent expression with the subjective possessive would be *of their taking him off*; or, with the object turned into a passive subject, *of his being taken off*. This construction is, however, becoming archaic.

Gerund and
abstract noun.

444. The uses of the gerund shade off into those of an ordinary abstract noun, and it is not possible to draw a line sharply between its values as the one and as the other. Thus, for example, in

We read of Cæsar's *passing* the Rubicon,

passing is unmistakably a gerund, because it takes a direct object *Rubicon*. But in

Cæsar's *passing* of the Rubicon,

and yet more in

the *passing* of the Rubicon by Cæsar,

passing has simply the value of a noun, as if it were *the passage of the Rubicon*. Again in

Neither *blessing* nor *cursing* could change him;

it is impossible, as the sentence stands, to say whether *blessing* and *cursing* are gerunds or abstract nouns; the meaning belonging to either would be suitable.

Modern
English
constructions.

Of the following constructions:

- (1) for *the passing* the Rubicon; (2) for *passing of* the Rubicon; (3) for *passing* the Rubicon; (4) for *the passing of* the Rubicon;

Modern English sanctions only (3) and (4); for, in these, the grammatical values of the forms in *-ing* are unmistakable.

In older English we find, however, as a result of confusion, many examples of (1) and (2): thus in Shakespeare, Archaic constructions.

We altered much upon *the bearing* it ;
So find we profit by *losing* of our prayers.

PECULIARITIES OF THE GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTION.

445. The gerundial infinitive (the adjective and the adverb [188]) is used with many verbs, adjectives and nouns, and even adverbs, to point out purpose, interest, object, consequence, reason, and the like; and, the adverb gerundial infinitive is sometimes used like the descriptive adverb (407). Examples are: With full value of *to*.

(1). Adjective: Adjective.

A work *to do* (or, *to be done*); a path *to guide* our feet ;
He was not a man *to call* upon his friends ;
This is *to be done* at once ; He is *to die* at sunrise.

(2). Adverb: Adverb.

How came you *to go* ? He proceeded *to count* the ballots ;
How did he come *to be chosen* premier ?
He came *to secure* the position ; He left him *to fish* ;
He is ready *to find* fault and hard *to please* ;
too many *to be sacrificed* (398 [5]) ; strong enough *to conquer* ;
I love you too much *to let* you go ;
He fell, never *to rise* again (407) ; He came home, only *to die*.

446. The construction of the gerundial infinitive in the preceding examples is the one in which *to* retains most of its original value—"unto, in order to, for the purpose of," and the like. But this construction has quite outgrown its natural limits and shades off into others where, with the gerund or with a noun of any kind, a different preposition would be necessary: thus, Other values of *to*.

a fool *to think* so ; reason *to suspect* ;
He failed *to appear* ; He was glad *to believe* ;
I laughed *to see* him ; I am ashamed *to beg* ;
He failed *to learn* it ; He resolved *to enter* ;
What were you thinking of, *to trust* him so far ?
To hear him talk, one would think him master.

where we might say:

a fool *for thinking* so ; reason *for suspecting* (or, *suspicion*);
 failed of appearing; glad *at hearing*;
 laughed *at seeing* him (or, *at sight of* him);
 ashamed *of begging*; failed *in learning* it;
 resolved *on entering*; *in trusting* him so far;
 on hearing him talk.

Resulting
constructions.

In these constructions the infinitives most resemble the noun clause (279 [9]), introduced by *that*, or without any connective, added directly to a word with the value of an adjective or an adverb, when a noun would require a preposition; and so being analogous to the adverbial objective case of nouns (145-147). We may, therefore, regard these infinitives as noun gerundial infinitives used with an adjective or adverb value, according to their relation.

OTHER ROOT AND GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS.

After a verb
and its object.

447. The infinitive, with or without *to*, is used, like the ordinary objective predicate adjective or noun (132), after a verb and its object, as a kind of adjunct to the latter, signifying an action in which it is concerned: thus, for example,

They saw her *depart*; Nobody imagined him *to be listening*;
 They declared him *to have been killed*;
 He prevailed on them *to go*;
 He waited for them *to leave* (233 [1]).

Infinitive,
an object.

This important and widely used construction has more than one starting point. In such cases as

I told him *to go*; They forbade us *to enter*;

the infinitive is really the noun gerundial infinitive in the direct objective, and the pronoun is the indirect objective. In other cases, like

I forced him *to go*; They induced us *to remain*;

the infinitive is the adverb gerundial infinitive and the *to* has nearly its proper value of a preposition governing a noun.

Infinitive,
an adverb.

Objective
subject of
the infinitive.

But here again (as in 446) the construction has been carried much beyond its natural limits, as the object

of the verb has come to be a kind of subject (the objective subject) to the infinitive; since, for example,

He believed his friend to have been wronged;
I ordered the boy to be off;

are equivalent to

He believed that his friend had been wronged;
I ordered that the boy should be off.

In any such case, the object can be turned into the subject of a passive verb-phrase, the gerundial infinitive remaining as an adverbial adjunct to the latter: thus,

Passive construction with adverbial infinitive.

He was told to go; He was forced to go;
The boy was ordered to be off; She was seen to depart;
His friend was believed by him to have been wronged.

In the first example, the infinitive is the object of the active construction, and, so, resembles the retained object (see 128 and 148); in the second and the third, the *to* has nearly its preposition value; and, in the last two, the infinitive resembles the adverbial predicate adjective (122), for, as we have seen above, all these infinitives are, in the active, a kind of adjunct to the object. Hence, while there are different shades of logical value, the infinitive after the passive verb may, in all cases, be valued as adverbial. In such a sentence, however, as

He is believed *to be honest*,

the adjective value of the *to be honest* is more marked, but it owes this value to the *honest* (449).

448. The subject of the infinitive is also expressed after *for*, both in its ordinary use and its use as an introductory prepositional particle (413): thus,

Subject after *for*.

The word sits fair *for news* to go to Ireland;
For him to act thus is improper;
It is impossible *for* such a *result* to happen.

449. *To be*, and *to have been*, the infinitives of the copula are often used with a noun or an adjective to form a phrase which corresponds to the infinitive of an adjective verb. In some such constructions, the use of the *to be* is optional (there being occasionally a preference for one of the forms). Examples are

Infinitives of the copula with an adjective or noun.

I believe him *honest* (or, *to be honest*);
It continued a *source of trouble* (or, *to be a source*);
He felt it *to be an honor* (less often, *an honor*);
I esteemed it *an honor* (less often, *to be an honor*).

But *to be* must be used in sentences like the following, where we wish to express the verbal notion of state existing—a notion which may often be expressed in such sentences by the gerund also :

It is good *to be wise*; He tried *to be honest* (or, *being honest*);
To be honest is best in the long run.

Uses of
infinitive
after:

450. The infinitive is sometimes used in other more anomalous cases :

(1). *seem*

(1). After *seem* and the like : thus,

They seemed *to tremble*; Even the dogs appeared *to know*.

Here we have the gerundial infinitive used as a predicate adjective.

(2). *as*.

(2). After *as*, preceded by *so*, *such*, and the like : thus,

You must act so as *to win* approbation ;

It was ~~so~~ used as *to be worn* out ;

He is such a fool as *to believe* the story.

This is most like the use of an adverbial gerundial infinitive after an adjective or adverb with *too* or *enough* (445 [2]). As will be seen later, the construction has grown out of an abbreviation for

You must so act as (one acts) to win approbation.

(3). A con-
junctive
word.

(3). After a conjunctive word in such phrases as

He knows not when *to go*, or when *to stay* ;

Make up your mind which *to take*.

This may be explained as an ellipsis for “when (he is) *to go*,” and so on, where the *to go* is adjective.

(4). *have*.

(4). After *have* in the sense of “be obliged” “be called upon” ; thus,

We have *to leave* in an hour,

in which *to leave* may be valued as an adverbial gerundial infinitive. This is, no doubt, an extension of such constructions as

We have to perform a duty ;

and this is itself a transformation of

We have a duty to perform ?

Here, however, it is simpler to value *to leave* as the object of *have* in an idiomatic construction.

(5). After *had* followed by a word of comparison, especially *as lief, rather, better*, in such constructions as

You had better *be* careful; I had rather *go* than *stay*.

Here the infinitive is really the direct object of *had*, which is past subjunctive, and the comparative (*rather* being here so used) is an objective predicate adjective modifying it: the meaning being

I should hold (or, regard) going a better thing than staying; and so on.

(6). As sentence adverbs with different logical values (390 and 391): thus, for example,

(6). As sentence adverbs.

To tell the truth I am wrong; *To be sure*, he is a young man;

Will you help me? *To be sure*, I will;

Not *to keep* you in suspense, he is in prison;

But, *to return*, my tears flowed fast.

(7). In exclamations, when the emotion of the speaker prevents the full expression of his meaning: thus,

In exclamations: Without a subject.

Speak of Mortimer! Zounds, I will speak of him;

How! not *know* the friends that served you?

To talk to me of such stuff! The man's an idiot;

Well, Basil, only *to think* that we three should meet here prisoners!

Sometimes also this exclamatory infinitive has a subject, which is usually in the nominative case: thus,

With a subject.

She ask my pardon, poor woman! I ask hers with all my heart;

Lewis marry Blanche! O boy, then where art thou!

And *he to turn* monster of ingratitude and strike his lawful host!

A silly *girl to play* the prude with me!

She and *he*, etc., in such constructions, may be described as the subjects of infinitives in exclamation. And such exclamations may be regarded as undeveloped exclamatory sentences: thus, for example,

Is she to ask my pardon, poor woman!

451. A substantive word after an infinitive having a subject which is in the objective case, is also put in the objective, to agree with the word to which it relates: thus,

Case of predicate substantive.

He supposed the *offender* to be *me*,
For the *offender* to be *him* is an impossibility.

When the subject of the infinitive is omitted or is represented by a subjective possessive, there is nothing to decide the case of the infinitive complement; but the infinitive complement is here also to be valued as objective; for the subject, if expressed in the usual way, would be in the objective, and this is the regular construction in languages that show such relation by inflected forms: thus,

To be (or, Being) *me* is desirable;
 There is no doubt of its being *him*;
 the hope of being elected *President*;
 a desire to become the *owner*.

PARTICIPLES.

CONSTRUCTIONS.

452. The constructions of the participles differ less from those of ordinary adjectives than the constructions of the infinitives and gerunds from those of ordinary nouns, since adverbial modifiers are taken in general by adjectives as well as by verbs, and only the imperfect participle (with its phrases) takes an object, or is followed by a predicate noun or adjective (except in verb-phrases with the auxiliary *have*).

As attributive adjective.

453. Both the simple participles (not the participle-phrases also) are freely used as attributive adjectives, with only such modifiers as may be taken by all adjectives. When used as an adjective, the participle expresses merely the quality of the object, without referring, as does the participle, to action or state as existing in time (190). Examples are

a charming face; a very loving heart;
 his brightly shining arms; a cage of singing birds;
 a charmed snake; a warmly loved friend.

Perfect, with difference in form.

A perfect participle, when thus used attributively, sometimes has a fuller form than in its participial use; thus in "a *learned* man," "a *blessed* sight," we regularly pronounce the words with two syllables. And we have seen (183) that the old form of a perfect participle in *-en* is in many cases preserved in adjective use; thus, "a *drunken* man"; "a *swollen* face."

Not a few words which are participles in form are so constantly used as ordinary adjectives that they hardly seem to us to be participles at all—sometimes, indeed, there is no verb in present use to which they belong; thus,

As ordinary adjectives.

charming, interesting, trifling, cunning;
beloved, forlorn, civilized, antiquated, past;

And a great many compound words take the participial ending *-ed* to make them adjectives (40): thus,

Compounds with *-ed*.

barefooted, one-armed, chicken-hearted, red-coated.

So, too, as in the case of ordinary adjectives, the simple participles are often used as nouns: thus, for example,

As nouns.

the living and the dead; the poor and suffering;
the lost, strayed, or stolen.

454. The simple participles (hardly ever the participle-phrase also) are used in the various constructions of a predicate adjective. Examples are:

In the constructions of the predicate adjective.

(1). Simple predicate (119):

He is (or, has been) *beating*; He is (or, has been) *beaten*.

(2). Ordinary adverbial predicate (122 and 373 [3]):

He came *running*; She stood *weeping*;
It stands *firmly planted*; He sat *buried* in thought.

(3). Appositive adverbial predicate (138 and 373 [4]):

He came, *running* at the top of his speed;
She stood, *weeping* at my loss and my fate.

In such colloquial constructions, however, as

Adverbial forms in *-ing*.

He became tired, *standing* up so long;
He made a large fortune, *lending* money;
He lost his life, *searching* for gold;

where *standing*, *lending*, and *searching* may express simply an adverbial relation, the form in *-ing* is a gerund in the objective, which is due to an omitted preposition.

(4). Factitive and ordinary objective predicate (131 and 132):

I will have a doctor *sent* for; He made his influence *felt*;
He kept us *waiting*; We saw him *leading* a child.

(5). Appositive objective predicate (138):

We own the book *bound* in morocco;
He came in, having his hands *covered* with paint.

As ordinary
appositives.

455. The participles are used with the utmost freedom as ordinary appositives (136): thus, for example,

She, *dying*, gave it to me;
The enemy, *beaten*, fled to the camp;
Not *having* an overcoat, he caught a severe cold;
Sleeping or *waking*, I must still prevail.

Being,
having been,
auxiliaries.

And often, instead of an adjective or a perfect participle by itself, as directly appositive, we insert *being*, *having been*, the participles of the copula (as we do *to be* and *to have been* [449], in parallel infinitive constructions) as a kind of verbal auxiliary to the adjective expression, which thus comes to be complementary to it; the phrase thus formed corresponding to the participle of an adjective verb: thus, for example,

John, *being* weary, has returned home;
John, *being* tired with the day's work has gone to bed;
The enemy *having been* beaten retired to his camp.

And, as in the case of the auxiliary infinitive, the use of the *being* is sometimes optional and sometimes necessary.

Appositive
adjectives:
logical
values.

456. The appositive adjective, as we have seen (137), especially implies the suggestion of an added clause of which it is itself the predicate. The participles and participle phrases used appositively, have very often the value of such clauses. They are, in a manner, a substitute for them, which, by securing brevity, adds force to what we have to say. Thus, in place of some of the examples given in par. 453, we may say:

She gave it to me *when she died*;
The enemy, *when he had been beaten*, fled to the camp;
Whether I sleep or wake, I must still prevail.

How
specialized.

Since, however, the participle phrases in such a sentence as "*Sleeping or waking*, I must still prevail," may be the equivalent of different subordinate clauses; in Modern English ambiguity is avoided without

sacrificing brevity, by using also the conjunctions that express the grammatical relations of subordinate to principal clauses: thus,

When (or, While, or, Although, etc.,) sleeping or waking, etc.

457. An idiomatic co-ordinate appositive use of the imperfect participle (compare 373 [4]) occurs in such sentences as

Idiomatic use
of imperfect
participle.

Leaping from his horse, he came to me at once;

Rising from his chair, he went over to the table;

when the real meaning would require *having leaped* and *having risen*. This idiom is, however, seldom found in colloquial English. Our spoken language, indeed, is, in all respects, more analytic than our written language. The former follows the modern analytic tendency (6), while the latter has been greatly influenced by the complex structure of the sentences in Latin and Greek literature, though less now than in Elizabethan English. Consequently, in written Modern English, we often find instead of the two co-ordinate sentences of spoken English, a simple sentence in which the verb of one of these sentences has been turned into a participial phrase: thus, for example, the spoken form of the above sentence would be

He leaped from his horse and (then) came to me at once;

He rose from his chair, and (then) went over to the table.

The above idiomatic use of the imperfect participle is no doubt due to classical influence, and to the fact that (unlike the Greeks and Romans) we are not careful, even in literature, always to mark clearly in language the logical sequence of events. In the above colloquial sentences, for example, the *then*, which would mark the sequence, is generally omitted.

Origin of the
construction.

Again in such a sentence as

The river burst its banks, *devastating* all the country;

we have an appos. adv. pred. participle (454 [3]) similarly used; for, although the construction seems to make the acts of bursting and devastating contemporaneous, the bursting precedes; so that *devastating*, etc., is logically equivalent to "and then devastated," etc.

458. In not a few cases, the construction with a participle modifying an object-noun (whether as objective predicate or as appositive) is equivalent to that of an infinitive with its objective subject (447),

Equivalents
of participle
with objec-
tive noun.

or of a gerund with its subjective possessive (443). Thus, for example,

I saw *him* get down from his horse;
I saw *him* getting down from his horse;
I saw *his* getting down from his horse.

In all these three nearly equivalent expressions, the *him* and *his* are logical subjects of the action expressed by the verbal word: the meaning being that "he got down from his horse, and I saw it." They are three different but related ways in which the verbal nouns and adjectives are made to play a part in such constructions, like that of real verbs in subordinate clauses.

The passive participle in like manner plays the part of a passive verb: thus,

I saw him struck down by the assassin.

Interchange-
able con-
structions.

459. Hence, both after a verb and after a preposition, the two constructions, of an objective case modified by an imperfect participle, and of a possessive modifying a gerund, are to a certain extent interchangeable, and the question sometimes arises as to which should be preferred. There are cases where both may be defended as equally proper: and even among good writers (and yet more among careless ones), the one is occasionally found when more approved usage would prefer the other: thus, for example,

Would you mind *me asking* a few questions?

Pardon *me blushing*;

The certainty of the old *man interrupting* him;

The hope of society is in *men caring* for better things.

where *my blushing*, *my asking*, the *old man's interrupting*, and *men's caring* would be more approved.

Concrete,
originally
preferred.

460. A concrete notion is always more easily understood than an abstract one. Consequently, as we should expect, "*Pardon me blushing*," for example, is the construction used in the oldest stages of the language. After a time, as the race and the language developed, the abstract construction displaced the concrete one; but, in accordance with our preference

for simplicity of expression, the concrete one came into use again about the middle of this century. At present, the concrete constructions are in common use in spoken English, and they are not uncommon in literary English. As a general rule, however, the possessive with the gerund is now preferred by the best writers when the notion the gerund represents is emphatic and when it is proper or possible to use a possessive: thus, for example,

Modern constructions.

On account of *John's* (*my, your, his, everyone's*, etc.) injuring
John's brother.

But it is not used in such sentences as

He failed owing to ill *health* having spoiled his plans;
There is no fear of *injustice* being done him;
On account of *this* being so—of *each* (*either, all*, etc.)
having done so;

for the italicized words have no possessive forms in use

So, too, in such sentences as

He insisted on the *rule* that no one should leave being
strictly observed.

There is no fear of there being a *boy* kept in;

owing to the position of the noun part.

It is, however, correct to say

He insisted on *Mr. What-do-you-call-him's* leaving the room;

as the possessive form is distinctly felt to represent one notion. And, of course, in such sentences as

He yields place to *you* (or, *John*) speaking;
He saw *me* (or, *John*) running home;

the possessive form would not be admissible; for the reference is to the actor, and *speaking* and *running* are participles. Indeed, the preferable form for the first sentence would be,

He yields place to you *when* (you are) speaking (456).

461. The participles, especially the imperfect, are used much oftener than any other kind of appositive adjunct in making an absolute construction with either noun or pronoun.

Participle in absolute construction.

The absolute construction is, however, not a colloquial one, and, even by writers, it is not commonly

used: by many, indeed, it is avoided as being unidiomatic. Examples are

The teacher absenting himself, there was no school;

One of them having fallen, the rest ran away;

This said, he sat down; *Dinner finished*, he went away.

Being, having been, auxiliaries.

And, as in the case of the infinitive and the participle, instead of a simple passive participle, or another adjective word or phrase, being taken directly with the noun or pronoun in absolute construction, the auxiliary *being* or *having been* is often introduced: thus, for example,

This being (or, *having been*) said, he sat down;

Dinner being (or, *having been*) finished, he went away;

He sat down, his heart *being* heavy with sorrow.

In this construction, *being said* and *being finished* are not the progressive forms of the perfect participles. *Said* and *finished* are simply complementary participles to the participle *being*; but the forms with *having been* may be valued as phrasal perfect participles, for the meaning is then the same as when we value *said* and *finished* as complementary participles (226)

Logical value of absolute construction.

462. Like the absolute construction already described (150), the noun and the participle in the absolute construction express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action and are generally the equivalents of adverbial clauses: thus, the sentences above are equivalent to

As the teacher absented himself, there was no school.

When he had said this, he sat down;

and so on with the others. And, as in the case of adverbial clauses (407), the absolute construction is sometimes descriptive co-ordinating: thus,

He left for the Continent, all his family accompanying him.

Impersonal construction.

Occasionally, the quasi-subject part of this construction is omitted as in,

(*We*, or, *One*) *Assuming* this to be true, what will follow?

Talking of failures, I heard of one to-day;

The fox terrier is, generally speaking, a faithful companion.

This is called the *impersonal* absolute construction. And, as we have seen (411 [1]), such prepositions

as *saving, touching, concerning*, have been produced in this way either directly or by analogy.

In such sentences as

An adjournment was made till next week, *the date to be fixed later*;

They will hold a raffle, *the winner to get the turkey*.

Infinitive in
absolute
construction.

we have absolute constructions in which the infinitives are adjective with a future meaning.

463. The O.E. absolute case (as we have seen [271]) was a dative in an adverbial phrase. When our nouns lost their inflections, this value disappeared, and, then, the nominative came into use. Examples of the objective in the absolute constructions are to be found in Early Modern English, as, for example, in Milton,

Archaic
forms.

This inaccessible high strength, the seat
Of Deity supreme, *us* dispossessed,
He trusted to have seized.

But these are probably imitations of the Latin ablative absolute, not survivals of the O.E. construction.

PREDICATIVE COMPLEMENTS.

464. Like the copula (455 and 449), the derived forms of other verbs of incomplete predication may be followed by complements like those of the simple and phrasal verb forms: thus, for example,

We saw him *stand firm*; We wished him *to stand firm*;
We praised him for *standing firm*;
Standing firm, he met the onset.

Such complements may be called *predicative* complements of the infinitive, gerund, or participle; for the phrases so formed correspond to the derived forms of verbs of complete predication. See also par. 368 (3).

XVI. IRREGULAR CONSTRUCTION.

Abbreviation,
the common-
est cause.

For economy
and impres-
siveness.

465. So far we have been dealing mainly with the regular forms taken by what we call the complete sentence—that is, the sentence which contains a subject and a predicate (16). Often, however, from various causes, we use irregular forms. Especially do we express ourselves by combinations of words which are not grammatically complete sentences. This *abbreviation* (or, “shortening”) by leaving part to be *understood* is treated by grammarians as irregular, compared with the so-called “sentence”; but the process is a very common one and conveys our meaning just as completely and regularly. There are other causes of deviation from the regular types of grammatical construction; but the desire for brevity is the chief cause. Abbreviation is especially common: (1) in familiar colloquial speech, because there the mutual understanding of speaker and hearer, and the aid of surrounding circumstances and of tone and gesture, do much to fill out the expression; in this way we *economize* our utterance: and (2) in lively and picturesque, and especially in impassioned or emotional speech, because it is sought to *impress* the mind more strongly by putting before it only the most important ideas. In written speech, abbreviation is, of course, allowable only when the context shows the meaning intended.

ABBREVIATION FOR ECONOMY.

I. TO AVOID REPETITION.

I. In co-ordi-
nation:
(1). Of
clauses.

466. The simplest and commonest kind of abbreviation, which is used in almost every sentence we make, is that by which, when two or more co-ordinate clauses following one another would be made up in part by repeating the same words, these words are omitted in all but one, and left to be understood, or supplied, from the connection, in the others. Thus, for

example, in the following sentences we should usually leave out the words which are put in parentheses:

He is present, she is not (present);
The boy despises the infant; the man (despises) the
boy; the philosopher (despises) both;
I have something to sing, (I have) something to say;
These are dark (woods, these are) unfrequented woods.

But, of course, such an abbreviation as the following, though very common, is not grammatically justifiable:

Unjustifiable abbreviation.

The matter was hushed up; the servants (were) forbidden to speak.

467. Then, as we usually connect the clauses together by means of conjunctions when they are fully expressed, so we also make great use of conjunctions in connecting the fragments that remain when the unnecessary repetitions are omitted; thus,

(2). Of words and phrases.

He is good and handsome and clever;
He is good, handsome, and clever;
I am not sick, but well;

Read not to contradict nor to believe, but to weigh and consider.

By this means, conjunctions, which were originally connectives of clauses only, have come to be, on a very large scale, connectives of all kinds of words and phrases which are co-ordinate in a single clause.

468. As we call a sentence *compound* when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate clauses, usually connected together by conjunctions, so we call any member of a sentence or a clause a *compound member*, or element, when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate words, usually bound together by conjunctions (114).

Compound members.

But as the verb is, above all others, the essential element of a sentence, it is allowable to hold that there are as many sentences (or clauses) as there are verbs in anything we say.

469. The co-ordinate conjunction *and* is used far oftener than all the other conjunctions together in thus compounding the elements of sentences. And so distinctly do we feel that it binds together into one

And, in compounding

the words composing a compound element that the verb belonging to a subject so compounded is made plural, as if it had a plural subject (117 [II.]). Indeed, there are combinations which cannot be taken apart into single clauses: for example,

We thought Tom and Dick and Harry a noisy trio;
 He confounds right and wrong;
 Three and eighteen make one-and-twenty;
 He sat between his sister and his brother.

Such combinations with any other conjunction are only rare and irregular.

II. In subordination.

470. But even the subordinate conjunctions are sometimes used to join a mere word or phrase which represents an abbreviated subordinate clause to that on which the clause would depend: thus,

Are you mad? If not, speak to me;
 Though often forbidden he kept coming;
 He fell while bravely defending the flag;
 It can be done, though not without trouble;
 Did you go? If not, you may remain now;

that is, "if *you are not mad*," "though *he was* often forbidden," etc.; "though *it can not be done* without trouble," etc.

In all such cases if we are to parse the words or clauses, we must supply what has been omitted.

Most commonly this form of ellipsis is found in the case of the simple copula along with a subject which is the same as that of the other clause. And, in all such cases, the fact of an omission of what might be and generally is expressed, is much more distinctly present to our minds than when we abbreviate by means of *and* or *or* or *but* and the like.

Conjunctive word left.

471. By a like desire to avoid unnecessary repetition, we sometimes let a conjunctive word or a subordinate interrogative represent alone the whole clause which it would have introduced: thus,

He has been gone all day, no one knows *where*;
 I cannot come, and I will tell you *why*;
 One of you must give way, I do not care *which*;

that is, "where he has gone;" "why I cannot come;" and so on. Here it is, of course, proper to give *where*, etc., the values of the clauses which they represent

472. It is because comparison naturally involves parallelism or repetition of expression that the conjunctions of comparison, *than* and *as*, and especially *as*, have come to be followed very frequently by abbreviated expressions (398 [3]): thus, (adding in parenthesis the words which may be supplied as understood),

In comparison: *than*, *as*.

He is older than you think (that he is old);
 He is taller than I (am tall);
 I would rather go than (I would soon [377]) stay;
 She is as good as he (is good);
 She was as gay as (she) ever (was gay);
 He put it off as long as (putting it off was) possible;
 Love thy neighbor as (thou lovest) thyself;
 I regard it as (I regard a thing) possible.

Starting with such abbreviated constructions as the last two, *as* has come to be used as an appositive connective, and even to take on the meaning of "in the light of," "in the character of"; so that, by analogy, we make such phrases as

As, an adverbial conjunctive particle.

He gained great fame *as* an orator;
 His fame *as* orator was great;
 He did this *as* a precaution;
 He did his duty *as* chairman;

where it would be by no means easy to fill out the ellipsis in such a way as should give *as* its proper meaning. Used thus, *as* may be described as an *adverbial conjunctive* particle.

Often, before a conditional clause, a whole clause of comparison, involving a repetition, is omitted after *as*: thus,

Conditional and other clauses after *as*.

He looks *as* (he would look) if he were tired;
 I would thank her *as* (I should thank her) if she had gone;

So, too, with *as* and *than* before other kinds of clauses: thus,

You are just as gay as (you are gay) when you are in health;
 Nor was his ear less pealed with noises than (one's ear is pealed little with noises) when Bellona storms . . . or less than (one's ear would be, etc.) if this frame of Heaven were falling.

Even the clause immediately following the *as*-clause may be abbreviated, making, for example,

He looks *as if* tired; Stooping *as if* to drink;
 You are just as gay *as when* in health.

*As if,
as though.*

In conditional clauses this kind of abbreviation is so common, that *as if* has come to seem to us a compound conjunction, or conjunction-phrase, of conditional comparison (426), and we are quite unconscious of the ellipsis really implied in it. *As though* is used in the same sense; while, if the ellipsis were filled out, *though* could hardly ever begin the conditional clause.

Origin of
interchange.

The interchange of *though* and *if* is probably due to the fact that in older English the one is often used for the other even in ordinary constructions, as is sometimes the case in Modern English also: thus,

A well armed, *if* (or, *though*) undisciplined army, poured
forth sooner than was expected;

If (or, *Though*) your exterior be never so beautiful, you
must possess a beautiful interior also.

*As with
subjunctive
= as if.*

In older English and even in present poetry, we find constructions equal in value to those with *as if* in which no *if* is used, the subjunctive form after *as* indicating the possibility: thus,

To throw away the dearest thing he used
As't were a careless trifle.—SHAKESPEARE.

And half I felt *as they were come*
To tear me from a second home.—BYRON.

But in present poetry the omission of the *if* is unusual, owing to the loss of force on the part of the subjunctive.

So as to.

By an abbreviation kindred to *as if*, we shorten

You must so act *as one acts in order* to win approbation
into

You must act so as to win approbation;

and this has become, its origin being unthought of by us, one of the common constructions of the infinitive (450[2]).

*Poor as they
are, etc.*

And further, we frequently form sentences like these:

My friends, *poor as they are*, are above being bought;
All unarmed as he may be, he will disdain to fly;

where the adjectives *poor* and *unarmed* are in appositive construction, modifying the subjects of the independent clauses, *friends* and *he*,—as if it were “*being as poor as they really are poor*,” and so on. Indeed, the adverb *as* appears occasionally in present English, as the correlative of this *as*; thus, for instance, we find in Carlyle,

For Nature, *as green as she looks*, rests everywhere
on dread foundations.

But such a clause comes to appear to us equivalent to "however poor they are," or "though they are poor"; and then, by analogy with them, we form others which involve marked abbreviations: thus, for example,

Analogous formations.

*Poor as they are, you cannot buy them;
Valiantly as he may fight, they will beat him;*

where an absolute construction is implied: thus,

*They being as poor as they are;
He fighting as valiantly as, etc.;*

or, again,

Much as I love you, I love honor more;

where the appositive adjective is omitted: thus,

I, loving you as much as I love you, love honor more.

473. In written, more frequently than in spoken, language (as, indeed, in this very sentence), there is found a form of sentence-abbreviation, called the *split* construction, in which the part common to two or more phrases or clauses is expressed but once: thus,

III. Split construction.

Too much is undertaken *by*, and expected from, *the teacher*;

Some are, and must be, *greater than the rest*;

He is older than, but not so tall as, *his brother*,

It has become, and may be described as, *an appositive*;

In written, more frequently than in spoken, *language, etc.*;

that is,

Too much is undertaken *by the teacher* and expected from
the teacher;

Some are *greater than the rest* and *some* must be greater
than the rest;

and so on. But, of course, such abbreviations as the following are grammatically unjustifiable:

Unjustifiable abbreviation.

Man never is, but (is) always to be, blest;

Many have (sat), and others must, sit here.

474. It is by the same simple and obvious kind of abbreviation—namely, by leaving out parts of the sentence which are so clearly understood from the connection that it would be mere useless repetition to express them—that in question and answer a word or two often stands for a whole sentence, short or long. Thus, if one asks

IV. In question and answer.

Who broke in through the window, and did all this mischief in the room?

it is quite enough to reply *Jack*, without repeating the whole story of what Jack did. Or, if one says

You need not expect to see me at school to-morrow,
the return-question *Why?* and the answer *Because I am going out of town*, both imply repetitions of the first statement; but these need only be implied, and not actually made.

Abbreviated
question,
added to
statement.

So, also, we very often repeat, in the form of an abbreviated question, a statement just made, in the way of asking for assurance as to the truth of the statement (49): thus,

So they are off already, *are they?*

You do not believe it, *do you?*

We may be sure, *may we not*, that he will betray us?

Yea, yes;
nay, no.

The responsives *yea* or *yes*, *may* or *no* were originally adverbs, the one meaning "certainly" or "to be sure" (which we often use instead), the other meaning "not," and each now stands by abbreviation for a sentence in which it had the office of an adverb (393 and 394).

V. Use of
substitutes;
pronouns,

so.

475. To save the burdensome repetition of nouns, we have the pronouns as brief and much used substitutes. In a similar way, the pronominal adverb *so* is a very frequent substitute for a word (oftenest an adjective) or phrase or clause used as complement of a verb: thus, for example,

He is an Englishman and *so* are you;

He is either married or going to be *so*;

I thought that he could be trusted but I think *so* no longer;

If he is not already tired of waiting for us, this last delay
will make him *so*.

do.

And *do* is an almost equally frequent substitute for a form of a preceding verb, which would otherwise need to be used: thus,

Sleep seldom visits sorrow; when it *doth*, it is a comforter;

Embrace me as I *do* thee; I love her better than he *does*;

He spoke louder than he *might have done*.

Verb
auxiliaries.

476. The infinitive, or the participle of a repeated verb-phrase, is very often omitted, and the auxiliary left alone to represent the phrase: thus, for example,

He has never seen it, but I *have*;

I will join them if you *will*;

Do you promise me? I *do*.

In easy colloquial speech, even a repeated infinitive is represented by its sign *to* alone, Sign of the infinitive.

He would not go, though I told him *to*;
You may stay if you want *to*;

but this usage, though recent, is not reputable and is not allowed in careful style.

II. OTHER ABBREVIATIONS ALLOWED BY USAGE.

477. Not only, however, where the completion of the expression would involve an unnecessary and avoidable repetition of something actually said close by, but also where the common usages of speech are such as to show plainly enough what is meant, we often take the liberty of omitting something.

(1). We may have a subordinate member of the sentence omitted, as in Omission of:
I. A subordinate member.

He is fifteen (years old), and tall of his age;
It is a quarter after six (o'clock);
Stop at the baker's (shop); We visited St. Peter's (church);
I shall leave on the twenty-third (day of the month);
Don't do more than you can (not) help.

(2). One of the more essential parts, the subject or the verb, may be omitted. Thus, the subject is omitted in certain current expressions: as, II. An essential member.

Thank you! Prithee (that is, I pray thee); Bless you!
Would that he were here! Confound the fellow!

where, as in "*I* thank you," the subject may be supplied; or where, as in "Confound the fellow," no definite subject can be supplied. The latter expression is the active equivalent of the passive, "May the fellow be confounded," in which also no agent is indicated.

Also in diary style: as

Went to church yesterday; mean to go every Sunday.

In the second person in the imperative, and in the second person singular in old style and in poetry the pronoun is omitted: (1). In diary style.
(2). Supplied by circumstances.

Go; Hast heard? What say'st, my lady? Why dost stare so?

In concessive clauses like

Do what we will, work as hard as we may, we yet accomplish nothing;

for "*Do we*" (that is, "*Let us do*"), and so on (405). (3). In concessive clauses.

(4). In comparative phrases.

In comparative phrases, an indefinite subject after *as* or *than* (compare 472 above): thus,

I will come as early as *is* possible;
The day was fairer than *was* usual at that season.

(5). With impersonal verbs

With impersonal verbs the subject is sometimes omitted in poetic and antique style: thus, in Milton,

Pure, and in mind prepared, if so *befall*,
For death.

Of this usage, which was common in older English, *meseems*, *methinks*, etc., might seem to be survivals; but the clauses that follow these verbs are their real subjects (289): thus, for example,

Methought (that) I by the brook of Cherith stood.

(6). Copula omitted.

Again, the copula is sometimes omitted—oftenest before a predicate noun or adjective, and in a question: thus,

Why all this noise here? You a soldier? Hence these tears;
The higher the mountain, the greater the cold.

(7). Verb, in commands.

A verb of motion is often omitted in commands, being made unnecessary by an adverbial adjunct, which, indeed, may even be regarded as converted into a verb (85): thus,

Up and *away*! *Off* with you!
Back to thy punishment, false fugitive:

and after the auxiliaries and some Old verbs (here, of course, the asserting word still remains): thus,

Farewell: I'll hence; I *must* after him to tell the news;
And now *let* us down to breakfast.

III. Both essential members omitted.

(3). Both subject and copula, or both subject and predicate verb may be omitted, only a subordinate member remaining: thus, for example,

Where (am I) to begin? How (am I) to excuse myself?
But how (am I) to gain admission?
(I wish you a) Good morning, ladies!

(I drink to) Your health, sir; (I am) Here, master;

(I give you) Many thanks for your kindness;

Waiter, (hand me) a clean plate; (It is) Agreed!

(Give me) Your hand upon it, boatswain!

My daughter is married to I know not who (he is);

(Go we) A little further, and we shall be at our journey's end;

I know not what (I am) to do;

I will tell you when (you are) to begin.

And, in the absolute construction (462), the quasi-subject is sometimes omitted; and sometimes also the pronoun and the auxiliary *being* are omitted in such sentences as

In the absolute construction.

It is provoking; (you being) so tired as you are, too.

478. *What* and *how*, followed by *if* and *though*, sometimes represent whole clauses: thus,

With *what if*, etc.

What (matter is it) *though* she be a slave!
How (would it be) *if* the sky were to fall?

So *not* in such sentences as

With *not*.

Not that I was ever afraid of him;

is the remnant of a clause, something like "*I would not say*," or "*It is not the case*." So, too, with *not* in

Did you see him? (I did) *Not* (see him) that I recollect (371).

(I would) *Not* (say any thing) *but that* I might have gone if I had chosen.

Compare the abbreviation with *but*, noticed in par. 326.

479. The *so* which is used *so* liberally, especially in mawkish and affected speech, in sentences like

IV. Use of *so*.

I was *so* glad to see you; It was *so* dreadful;

makes the expression really incomplete, because it distinctly implies a comparison, of which the other member, a subordinate clause introduced by *as* or *that*, is left unexpressed.

Well established usage authorizes such expressions as

so far from that.

He says I have wronged him; but, *so far from that*, I have done him all the good in my power.

when the meaning is "but *I am so far from that, that I have*," etc.; but the form without *so*, namely, "but *far from that, I have*," etc., is less cumbrous. It is also more logical, for it may be taken as a descriptive adverbial phrase (391).

EMOTIONAL ABBREVIATION.

480. It was noticed above that not economy alone but often impressiveness also, is sought to be attained by abbreviation. In the haste and heat of feeling, we throw aside our usual elaborate mode of calm expression by assertion, and bring forth only that part of the sentence which most strongly affects our

Effects of feeling on grammatical structure.

mind, or which we wish to have most strongly affect the mind of another. Hence all emotional expression tends strongly to grammatical incompleteness (465); the exclamatory sentence is apt to be a defective one. And any admixture of feeling adds to the readiness with which we resort to the various modes of abbreviation. Examples are,

What! that to me! ; You, my long lost brother! ;
I, a liar! ; So young and so unfortunate! ;
Speak! I couldn't have uttered a word.

For the exclamatory infinitive, see par. 450 (7).

Interjection,
with words or
phrases.

481. Along with an interjection we often put a word or a phrase pointing out more distinctly the kind of emotion we feel, or the occasion of it: thus,

O horrible! And oh, the difference to me!
Alas, my unhappy country! Lo, the poor Indian!
Ah, the pity of it! Fie, the lazy fellow!
Pish, nonsense! Pshaw, how absurd!

Interjection
omitted.

But quite as often we make an exclamation of the occasion of the feeling, without any interjection added, the tone and gesture showing plainly enough what the feeling is. Thus, the interjection may be omitted with any of the above examples.

Preposition,
after inter-
jection.

Occasionally, as if the interjection were an assertion instead of a mere sign of the feeling intended to be intimated, a preposition is used to combine it with the added explanation (see 436): thus,

Fie *on* you! Alas *for* Troy!
O *for* a lodge in some vast wilderness!

Interjectional
words.

which may be taken as equivalent to

I cry shame on you ; I grieve for Troy ; etc.

482. A number of our ordinary words are so commonly used in incomplete exclamatory expression that they have almost won the character of interjections: thus, for example,

Exclamatory
subordinate
clauses.

why, how, what, well, indeed, hark, behold, hail,
help, silence, quick, away, out, back, to arms.

483. Subordinate clauses are often used in an exclamatory way, with omission of the main clause to

which they are subordinate—this being sometimes replaced by an interjection: thus, for example,

O that he were with us! How clear and balmy the air is!

If you had only seen her in all her glory!

Had we but known of it in time!

What a pleasant day it has been!

That a king should be so conveyed!

As if I could be guilty of such meanness!

Oh! Mr. Simple, if you only knew how I loved that girl!

as if the construction were:

I would that he were with us;

It were well if you had only seen her in her glory;

Observe how clear and balmy the air is; etc.

Such may be called *exclamatory* subordinate clauses.

THE EMOTIONAL ELEMENTS.

484. As has been already stated (52 and 53), the imperative and optative modes of expression shade into each other, and are both nearly related to the exclamatory; and hence the question may often arise whether a given sentence or part of a sentence is best viewed as the one or the other—just as it may sometimes be questioned whether a sentence is more interrogative or exclamatory.

Imperative
and optative.

There is a certain relationship between the nominative of address in the noun, the imperative or mode of direct command in the verb, and the interjection or word of direct intimation of feeling. The first and last stand equally outside the structure of the sentence, and the imperative usually rejects a subject; and the three variously accord in their practical uses.

Relation of
nom. of
address,
imperative,
and inter-
jection.

485. For the sake of stimulating attention, or of giving force and impressiveness to what we say, or of softening what might seem too positive or blunt, or for other such purposes, we are apt in familiar colloquial style to *interject* into our sentences little sentences and phrases which stand in no grammatical connection with our sentences, and which are also like interjections in that their chief purpose is to intimate our states of feeling. Examples are

Interjectional
phrases and
sentences.

you know; you see; I tell you; I declare or fancy;
to be sure; by your leave.

We may call them, then, *interjectional* phrases and sentences.

Shade into
modal
adverbs.

Such phrases and sentences, we have already seen (391), shade off into modal adverbs, which are more or less closely connected with the sentences where they are found, and which show the way in which the thought is conceived by the speaker.

Assevera-
tions.

Asseverations and oaths are of the nature of interjectional phrases. Thus, for example, "By Jove" strictly means "I swear by Jove," and would be, if used seriously, the invocation of a divinity to attest the truth of what we are saying. And the same impulse to make our expression more forcible by putting into it a strong word or two, something that seems to imply feeling or passion, leads occasionally to the insertion of absurd bits of phrases, which it would be in vain to try to build up into sentences: thus, for example,

Who *the mischief* can have done this?
What *in thunder* are you here for?

GRAMMATICAL VALUES CHANGED BY ABBREVIATION.

Verbs and
adjectives.

486. Abbreviation often changes the grammatical value of words: thus, for example, the sentences,

He kept himself quiet; He got himself appointed;

where the verbs are transitive, and the adjectives are objective predicate, have been shortened, in familiar style, into

He kept quiet; He got appointed;

where the verbs are intransitive, and the adjectives are subjective predicate.

Adverbs, pre-
positions and
conjunctions.

Again, *along*, originally an adverb phrase, *on long*, like *on high*, *in vain*, came early, like many other adverbs, to be used as a preposition also: thus, "*along* the side of"; and this, by a further abbreviation, has given us *along side of*, and *along side*: thus,

The ship lay *along* (the) *side* (of) ours.

In like manner, *because* < *by cause*, and *for* < *fore* (= "in front of") have become conjunctions:

We stayed in *because* (= "by cause of the fact that")
it was stormy;

We stayed in *for* (= "in front, or in view, of the fact that")
it was stormy.

We have already seen that in this way adverbs and prepositions and even other parts of speech have been converted into conjunctions (and that, as in the case of *directly* and *immediately* [423], the process is still going on). And we have also seen (234 [3], 328 [5], etc.) that abbreviation produces phrases which have the value of parts of speech and are inflected like them.

487. In the preceding parts of this section, we have considered some (including the more usual and regular) of the ways in which English expression is abbreviated, with the result in part to give a new character to words, in part to make incomplete or elliptical sentences which have to be filled up in order to be described and parsed. It may often fairly be made a question whether we shall declare that a certain word or certain words are to be supplied or understood, or whether we shall take the sentence just as it stands, regarding the mode of expression as so usual that the mind, even on reflection, is unconscious of the absence of anything that should be there. Thus it would be quite absurd to fill out a phrase in which *for* was used as conjunction to the form (as explained above), out of which its use as a conjunction grew; but we may either treat *as if* as a conjunction-phrase or fill in the clause which the *as* really represents.

How to parse abbreviated forms.

OTHER IRREGULARITIES.

488. But besides abbreviation, emotion produces other effects upon grammatical construction. A sentence is sometimes begun on one plan and completed on another. Unusual emotion or an unusually rapid succession of thoughts renders our speech incoherent; one thought follows another before the expression of the former is completed. Examples are,

Anacoluthic constructions.

But he, the chieftain of them all,

His sword hangs rusting on the wall ;

He that curseth father or mother, let him die the death ;

And He charged him to tell no man, but go thy way ;
And now, lest He put forth His hand . . . therefore the

Lord God sent him forth ;

If thou had'st known, even thou, the things which belong
unto thy peace ! but now they are hid from thine eyes.

Such constructions are called *anacoluthic* (that is, "wanting sequence"). They are avoided in modern prose,

the form of which is the result of the imitation of classical models and of centuries of experiment ; but they are found in older English, in present colloquial English, and in poetry, which is especially the language of emotion.

Emphasis :
(1). By repetition.

489. Our desire for impressiveness leads, under certain circumstances, to the very reverse of abbreviation. When we are in doubt in regard to our meaning being understood or when we wish to impress something upon our hearers, we occasionally repeat the expression, using either the same words or a synonymous form (116 [1] and [2]). Here, too, belong the double comparative and superlative (345) and the double negative (395). The desire for impressiveness has also led to the idiomatic use of *it is*, etc., in such sentences as,

(2) By *It is*,
etc.

It was then he did so ; It was because of you I went away ;
It was before to-day that he went ;

which are emphatic for “He did so *then*,” etc. Here, *it* may now be valued as a representative subject: thus,

His doing so was then ;
My going away was because of you.

Attraction.

Sometimes, again, as in

It is *I* that say so ; It was *you* that were there.

the verb of the adjective clause is attracted (117 [II.]) into agreement with the emphatic word ; it does not agree with *it*, which may be valued as the antecedent of *that*.

The concrete
for the
abstract.

490. The concrete is more readily apprehended than the abstract. This we have already seen in the case of the gerund construction (460), and it shows itself, also, in our use of an adjective complement, instead of an adverb: thus,

And *slow* and *sure* comes up the golden year ;

and such constructions as,

I know *thee* who thou art (279 [5]).

As we should expect, we find many illustrations of this principle in the older stages of the language, and in poetry: thus, for example, in Tennyson,

Fearing the mild face of the blameless king,
And after madness acted question asked ;

where the modern form would be “and being questioned after having acted madly.”

491. Analogy is as important in syntax as it is in etymology (72). Every combination of words is associated in our minds with other combinations; so that new combinations are made after a certain type. Incidentally we have already had illustrations of the effects of analogy upon construction (471, 472, etc.). Analogy.

But, as in etymology, analogy in syntax leads to irregularities. Of these there are two main classes:

(1). A construction gradually becomes extended beyond its natural limits, often producing idiomatic expressions which do not admit of grammatical analysis (446, 447, etc.). Extension.

(2). A construction is sometimes the result of a vacillation between two analogies (see also 72 [2]), and shows the influence of both. Examples are the sentences: Contamination.

- (1). I am friends with him;
- (2). Fare thee well;
- (3). He spoke to him as being the only member present;
- (4). While climbing the tree, he fell (456);

which may be regarded as respectively the conjoint result of

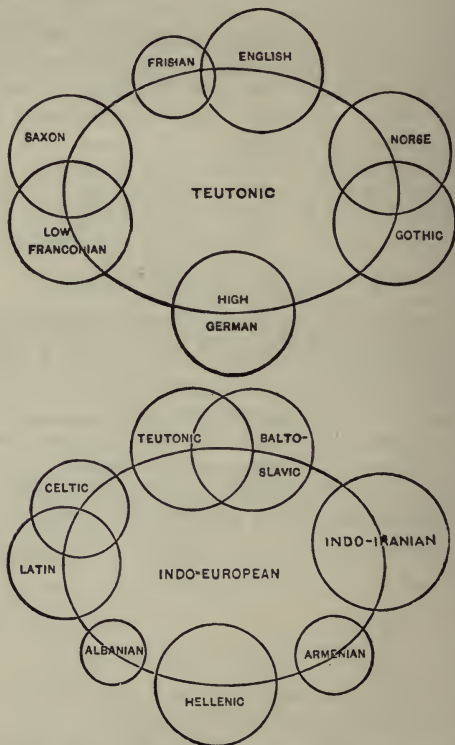
- (1). He and I are friends; I am friendly with him;
- (2). Fare well; keep thee well;
- (3). He spoke to him, as he was the only member present;
He spoke to him, being the only member present;
- (4). Climbing the tree, he fell;
While he was climbing the tree, he fell.

The process in language which produces a new form (of either a word or a construction) in which some parts of one form are confused with some parts of another, is sometimes distinguished as *contamination*. Anacoluthic constructions, indeed, may be regarded as a variety of contamination.

XVII. HISTORICAL OUTLINE.

RELATIONSHIP OF ENGLISH.

492. In the introduction to this grammar, are given the leading facts in the history of our language. We now add some further details.



The relationship of English to the other members of the Teutonic sub-family, and of the Teutonic sub-family to the other members of the Indo-European family of languages is shown roughly in the above diagrams, from Emerson's *History of the English Language*.

The large oval in each represents the common ground of words and grammatical forms; and the overlapping of the small circles, the possession of similar forms binding together the minor groups.

The Indo-European family includes as follows:

INDO - IRANIAN (two groups). — (1) Indian, including Vedic, the ancient language of the Veda (or, Brahmanic sacred writings), Sanskrit (the literary language of India); and Prakrit (the colloquial Sanskrit of early times), from which have descended the present Indian dialects. (2) Iranian, including Old Persian, Avestan, (the language of the sacred writings of Zoroaster), and Modern Persian, Kurdish, and Afghan.

Members of the Indo-European family.

ARMENIAN.—The Old and Modern Armenian dialects.

HELLENIC.—Old and Modern Greek.

ALBANIAN.—The language of ancient Illyria (important as connecting the Greek and the Latin).

LATIN.—Latin, and the Umbrian and Oscan dialects.

CELTIC.—The language originally spoken in Spain, Portugal, France, and Britain; and now the Welsh, Cornish, Irish, and Scotch Gaelic, the Manx, and the Armorican of Northwest France. In its early written form, Celtic resembles Latin in its inflectional system.

TEUTONIC (three groups).—(1) Gothic, (2) Norse, and (3) West Germanic (see p. 2).

BALTO SLAVIC (two groups, with numerous sub-divisions). (1) Baltic, including Old Prussian. (2) Slavic, including Russian and Polish.

493. The Teutonic languages differ from the other Indo-European languages—from Latin and Greek, for example—in many particulars. Their inflectional system, even in the oldest known stages, was less perfectly preserved. All the Indo-European languages have shown a tendency to become analytic, but the Teutonic most of all. Four other important peculiarities mark off the Teutonic languages from the others:

Differences between the Teutonic and the others:

Inflections.

(1). In their oldest known forms, just as still in High German, the adjective was inflected in two ways, according as it was or was not preceded by a demonstrative (331).

Adjectives.

(2). None of them have a future formed by suffix (110), but all have the same two ways of forming the past as we have in English (161).

Verbs.

(3). In the Indo-European, word-stress was at first free. In Teutonic it became fixed, originally resting, and, to a great extent, still resting, on the root syllable, except that, in nouns and adjectives and the verbs derived from them, it was on the first syllable, whether a root-syllable or not.

Word-stress.

(4). As is seen by comparing the following:

ENGLISH.—*feet kin hill knee 'tame three*
 LATIN.— *pedes genus collis genu domare tres.*

Consonants. the Teutonic languages have "shifted," as it is called, the original voiced to voiceless stops and their voiceless stops to fricatives. We must, however, bear in mind that the other Teutonic languages agree, or once agreed, with English as to the initial consonant while all the other Indo-European languages are in this respect like Latin.

Differences between H. and L. German: 494. The two branches of the West Germanic group differ from each other chiefly in two respects:

Consonants. (1). High German underwent a second consonant shift which did not affect Low German: thus, compare,

ENGLISH.— *over path sharp day tongue thing yoke,*
 H. GERMAN.—*ober Pfad sharf Tag Zunge Ding Joch.*

Inflections. (2). High German has held fast more inflections than Low German, which has lost most of them.

THE PEOPLE AND THEIR LANGUAGE.

Where the Teutonic tribes settled. 495. The Jutes settled Kent, the Isle of Wight, and the neighboring part of Hampshire; the Saxons, the banks of the Thames, and the rest of England to the south; the Angles, the rest of England, and the Lowlands of Scotland.

Importance of Northumbria. The Anglian Kingdom of Northumbria was the first to come to the front in literary and political importance. The first Bretwalda was an Anglian king; and Bede, our first historian, and Cædmon, our first Christian poet, wrote in the Anglian tongue. The name English, accordingly, was early applied to the languages of all the Teutonic tribes of Britain, in contrast with Latin, or Laeden, the language of the learned; the whole island was itself called *Angla-land*, or *England*, and the people, *Englisc*, or *English*. The term Anglo-Saxon should be applied only to West Saxon (496), in which nearly all the early literature of England has been preserved. Old English, on the other hand, is the name given by modern scholars to all the dialects spoken by the Teutonic tribes till about the period of the Norman Conquest.

OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

500-1200. 496. Throughout the Old English period (11) there were four chief dialects: Northumbrian, spoken north of the Humber to the Forth; Mercian, between the Humber and the Thames; and West Saxon, south of the Thames except in Kent (and, perhaps, Surrey), where was spoken Kentish,

the fourth and least important. Accordingly, Northumbrian and Mercian were spoken by Angles; West Saxon, by Saxons; and Kentish, by Jutes. Of these dialects, Northumbrian was the first to become a literary language. Its literature was at its best in the seventh century; but with the overthrow of the Kingdom of Northumbria in 685, the language lost its supremacy, although literary production continued until the early years of the eighth century. From then until the time of King Alfred there was no standard literary language. The unification of England under Egbert and his successors, and the influence and example of King Alfred (for he wrote his works in this dialect), led in turn to the supremacy of West Saxon. This continued to be the standard until the conquest of England by the Danes in the beginning of the eleventh century, when West Saxon in turn lost its supremacy. Edward, the Confessor, it is true, reigned from 1042 to 1066; but, although he was an English king, both he and his court were Norman in tastes. Besides, this brief English restoration was followed by the Norman Conquest, an event of great importance in the history of our language, as well as of our institutions. At the close of the Old English period, English was, therefore, dialectic.

Northumbrian, at first, the chief.

Then, West-Saxon.

English, dialectic at the Conquest.

Most O.E. literature in West Saxon.

497. Owing to West Saxon predominance, and the unsettled condition of the northern part of England during the incursions of the Danes, Northumbrian literature has been preserved to us almost wholly in a West Saxon version, and very little has remained of the other dialects. Enough, however, exists to show that Northumbrian early began to discard the Old English inflections, while West Saxon held them fast, and Mercian took a middle course.

Three foreign influences now affected the language slightly: (1) Latin: the Roman missionaries, in 597, began the work of Christianizing England; (2) Norse: the Danes, or Norsemen, at the end of the eighth, and at the beginning of the ninth, century, settled in the north and east of England, acquiring political predominance at the beginning of the eleventh; (3) French: under the Confessor. As we shall see later, we owe to these only a slight increase in our vocabulary, which had before been almost unmixed. No effect was produced upon our grammar, unless, perhaps, the grammatical simplification, which had already begun, was hastened by Danish influence.

Foreign influences.

Effect.

Old English syntax was, in the main, Teutonic, the order of the words in prose being almost that of Modern German.

Characteristics of O.E. syntax.

The sentences were awkwardly combined, proportion and unity were wanting, and conjunctions were often omitted (47).

MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD.

1200-1500.

Three
dialects.

498. In the Middle English period we find the same dialects as in Old English, but it is simpler to classify them as Southern (West Saxon and Kentish), Northern (Northumbrian), and Midland (Mercian).

Southern.

The West Saxon dialect is still spoken in a modified form in Southern England; and, during the present century, it has appeared in literature in the Dorsetshire poems of William Barnes.

Northern.

Lowland Scotch is the modern representative of the Northern dialect, which is seen at its best in the poems of Burns. Practically the same dialect is still spoken in Northern England. Specimens of it also we have in Tennyson's Northern Farmer, the Northern Cobbler, and a few of his other poems. These, however, are rather experiments than serious attempts at a revival of the dialect.

Midland.

East Midland,
the parent of
Modern
English.

Modern English is the descendant of the Midland dialect, which was spoken between the Humber and the Thames. Of this there were two sub-divisions, the Eastern and the Western; and it is really from the Eastern, spoken in London and the counties north of it, that Modern English chiefly sprang. This dialect owes its supremacy to the fact, above all others, that it was the language spoken in London, the commercial and political centre which had displaced Winchester, Egbert's capital, as the metropolis of England. Similarly, in ancient times, Rome and Athens made Latin and Attic Greek the language of classical literature; and, in later times, Paris made Parisian French the standard for France. "It is," says Prof. Skeat, "a curious reflection that if London had been built on the south side of the river, the speech of the British Empire and of the greater part of North America, would have been very different from what it now is." This dialect was also the speech of the district in which were situated the two great universities of Oxford and Cambridge, with their powerful linguistic influences. In its grammatical character also, it was a compromise between the Northern and the Southern dialect (497); and, as men were gathered together in London from all parts of England, it was further modified by their intercourse. It borrowed, for example, from the Northern, and it adopted more French words than either of the others. It was thus well fitted to become the common language of the nation.

Causes of its
supremacy:
The language
of London.

Oxford and
Cambridge
Universities.

Its gram-
mar, a
compromise.

In it, too, were written the beginnings of Modern English literature. In it, Chaucer wrote his *Canterbury Tales*, and into it Wyclif translated the Bible. It has sometimes been claimed for Chaucer that to his genius we owe the fact that the Midland dialect became pre-eminent. But modern research has shown that his influence, in this respect, has been greatly over-estimated. According to Prof. Emerson, "we now know that Chaucer wrote, as did Wyclif, Langland, Barbour, in the dialect most familiar to him, the dialect of the place of his birth. But it was Chaucer's good fortune to write also in the language of the chief city of a realm, now thoroughly united, in the language that was inevitably to become the standard of after ages, so that his works have been more easily read and appreciated in the centuries since his death. Chaucer may have chosen to write in English rather than in Latin or French, as Gower has done, but he was, in no wise, the creator of the language he used, and it would not be safe to assert that he exerted any particular or lasting influence on his native speech."

The language of literature.

Chaucer's influence.

The Midland dialect, however, did not at once become the literary language of the whole nation. From the time of Chaucer until the union of England and Scotland under King James, there were really two standards in the island: the English of Edinburgh for the Scotch, and the English of London for the English.

Standard in Scotland.

499. But, in view of the far-reaching character of the Norman invasion, one naturally asks how it was that one of the English dialects became the common speech of both Normans and Englishmen. When the Normans settled in England, French became one of its languages. The conquerors spoke at first their own tongue, while English remained that of the conquered. For a long time, indeed, the languages kept apart: the English of 1200 is almost as free from French words as that at the Conquest. But the number of Normans who settled in England was really small, and they made no attempt to supersede English as the spoken language. William's policy, we know, was to conciliate his new subjects. He even tried to learn their language. Henry I. is said to have been taught English. Henry II. understood it, and many of his courtiers spoke it. Edward I. used it in receiving the Turkish ambassadors, and he charges the French king with proposing "to destroy the English language wholly from the earth." Edward III. opened parliament (1362) with a speech in English, and, on petition from the commons in the same year, he enacted

Why our language is not French.

Position of English under the Normans.

that law pleadings should be in English. Henry V. was represented at the French court by ambassadors who could not speak French, a proof that French was no longer spoken at court. For a time, it is true, schoolboys translated their Latin into French, and students at Oriel College were required to speak Latin or French. We know little about the schools of the early Norman period, but it seems probable that this prominence was due, partly, at any rate, to the celebrity of the University of Paris, which many English students attended. However this may be, it is abundantly evident that English had been continually gaining ground, and that, in the middle of the fifteenth century, French ceased to be used in the courts and the schools, and English became the common tongue of the new nation.

English,
always a
literary
language.

500. Besides, English had never ceased to be a literary language; nor had the Conqueror deposed it from the place which it had held in public documents, and which, for a part of this period, it shared with Latin and occasionally with French. The earlier years of Norman influence were, as we might expect, comparatively barren. Latin continued in England as elsewhere to be the universal language of scholars, and there was also, for a time, an Anglo-French literature; but, from 1150, literary works in English became more numerous. Until Chaucer, however, each English writer wrote in the dialect he spoke; for the Conquest prevented, for a time, what would otherwise have happened sooner—the establishment of a standard literary language.

But dialectic
until Chaucer.

English
influence
increased by
political and
social events

501. Political and social events also helped to lessen the importance of French influence and increase that of English. Both William Rufus and Henry I. appealed to Englishmen for help against the Norman barons, and it was to Englishmen they owed their English crowns. Henry married Matilda, the descendant of Ethelred II.; and, not so long after the Conquest, many other intermarriages took place between the Normans and the English. After Henry's reign, indeed, the distinction between the two races was obliterated. The loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Louis IX. and Henry III., prohibiting the subjects of the one from holding lands in the dominions of the other; the rebellion of the barons under Montfort, and the political events in the reign of King John prevented any further influx of French-speaking foreigners, and led the continental French and the inhabitants of England to

look upon each other more and more as different people. Besides, both Norman and Englishman found a common cause in resisting the absolutism of the King; while the wars of Edward III. produced a strong anti-French feeling and led to the formation of a national spirit.

502. Sometimes 1100 is given as the date of the beginning of the Middle English period, from 1100 to 1200 being regarded as a period of transition. Towards the close of this Early sub-period, the language had become a good deal simplified. The terminations *a*, *o*, and *u*, were being "levelled" (247), that is, reduced to *e*; *c* and *k* were largely changed to *ch*; and *g* to *y* and *w*. Grammatical changes also took place, especially in the Southern dialect. Until the beginning of the thirteenth century, however, the vocabulary remained English with hardly any admixture of French.

Early (or, Transition) period.
1100-1200.
Characteristics.

503. After 1200, Norman French words began to be introduced, slowly, however, at first. Grammatical changes also went on. Grammatical gender (244), for example, began to disappear; the genitive in *-es* became general; plurals in *-es* and *-en* were often used indiscriminately (249); the ending of the gerundial infinitive became reduced to *-en* or *-e*; ordinary infinitives took *to-* before them (189), and the imperfect participle in *-inge* began to appear (192).

1200-1350.
Characteristics.

504. During the last part of the Middle English period French words, both Norman and Parisian, were used in large numbers, and the Midland dialect became the standard, although the Northern and the Southern still retained their peculiarities. Then, also, *-es* became the common suffix for the genitive singular and for the plural, being, however, still a separate syllable; our pronouns began to assume their modern forms; the plurals of verbs in the present and past indicative still ended in *en* or *e*, but the imperfect participle ended in *ing* and the passive participle of Old verbs in *en* or *e* (166). The subjunctive mood gradually decayed, and phrasal (including double) comparison became common. The ending *e* is now a very important one, for it represents the other vowel endings, with *-an* and *-en*, and various inflections of nouns, verbs, adjectives, as well as adverbial endings. The ending, however, began to be dropped or to become silent towards the close of the period.

1350-1500.
Characteristics.

505. This grammatical simplification was a natural one: for it had shown itself in English even before the Conquest; and it has taken place in other members of the Low German

Causes of grammatical simplification.

group where there was little or no foreign influence. But, from about the middle of the twelfth century, inflectional changes were certainly accelerated. The English of the period, both spoken and written, was dialectic; so that the levelling went on in many localities, being also unchecked by a literary standard. And, under the circumstances, as this process could not have been a uniform one, comparatively few inflections had survived when a common speech came into use. The Normans themselves may have confused or discarded the endings, when using English words; but this influence, if felt at all, could have been but slight. The Conquest, however, did affect our grammar by delaying the establishment of a standard language.

Character-
istics of
syntax.

The decay of inflections gave greater importance to relational words and the order of the elements of the sentence. Under French influence, probably, the Modern order became established (subject, verb, object); and, as might be expected, the syntax was at first regular even to stiffness.

Word-
formation.

506. Old English had rivalled modern German in the power of forming self-explaining compounds: thus, for example, it had hundreds of words like

treow-wyrhta (tree-wright), flesh-monger (flesh-monger),
bóc-hús (book-house), leorning-eniht (learning-knight);

our *carpenter, butcher, library, pupil*. During the fourteenth century many of these compounds were replaced, as we see from the above list, by equivalent, but, to the English, unmeaning, words taken from the French. This, however, did not take place until many foreign words had been introduced. The decay of O.E. prefixes and suffixes also began now, but Latin and Greek formative elements did not become dominant till the Modern period.

MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD.

1500.

Influences in
early period.

507. The Modern English period began about 1500 or a little later; for, from 1460 to 1520, there was a general dearth of literary productions, owing largely to political disturbances. During this period, however, two events took place which had a direct influence upon English, especially upon its vocabulary: the introduction of the art of printing by Caxton in 1477 and the Renaissance, or Revival of Learning, in the fifteenth century, which, in England, gave prominence to Latin and Greek models, especially to Latin.

508. This period may be subdivided into:

(1). Early Modern (Elizabethan, or, Tudor) English, from 1500 to the death of King James in 1625. This period was one of transition. Classical influence was very strong; many words of classical origin came into use and the style of Latin and Greek authors was imitated; almost any part of speech could be used as any other part of speech (86); the use of the inflections that remained was unsettled and all sorts of experiments were made with them, some being retained which we have rejected and some being rejected which we have revived; nearly every variety of apparent grammatical inaccuracy is met with; and our modern specialization of words had not been developed. The Teutonic mode of accentuation also began to become general; so that the prevailing tendency now is to throw the stress upon the first syllable. Many illustrations of these statements have already been given when dealing with inflections and constructions.

Three sub-periods:
(1). Elizabethan.

(2). The English of the seventeenth century, ending with the death of Dryden in 1700. This sub-period is marked by a larger influx of Modern French words, and especially by the final establishment of our possessive adjective *its* (348). With Charles II. an affected preference for everything French came into fashion. This period is an important one; for by 1700 the condition of the language had become almost as settled as it now is.

(2). Age of Dryden.

(3). The English of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

(3). Late Modern English.

The great difference between the first two and the last two centuries of the Modern English period was, as Prof. Sweet puts it, that "the former is the period of experiment and comparative license, both in the importation of new words and in the formation of idioms and grammatical constructions. The latter is marked by selection and organization."

First and second halves contrasted.

509. In Old and in Middle English there were distinct literary dialects. Since the time of King James there has been one literary language for English-speaking people. Provincial dialects still remain in the British Isles and elsewhere, but English literature now recognizes but one standard.

Characteristics of Modern English.
One standard language.

510. Modern English is analytic in the main, more so, indeed, than any other European language (110). Very few inflections are now retained, and the final *-e* which, in

Inflections.

Middle English, was syllabic, has either disappeared or is retained merely to show in writing a long preceding vowel.

Syntax.

The chief characteristic of Modern syntax is the perfection of its form. No doubt, the language would itself have developed this quality; but the unity and proportion which now distinguish our sentence-structure have been due, in a large measure, to the influence of Latin and Greek models.

Vowel-sounds.

511. The Old English system of vowel sounds was replaced by a new one in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; for example, according to Prof. Skeat, the following O. E. and Mod. E. words correspond (the pronunciation of the O. E. words is represented phonetically):

bát (baat), boat; *béte* (baity), beet; *bítan* (beetan), bite;
bót (boat), boot; *abutan* (ahbootahn), about.

Orthography.

512. Modern English orthography is a mass of anomalies. Old English orthography was purely phonetic, and remained so, in the main, until the invention of printing. The Anglo-French scribes had respekt the language, using French forms of Latin letters; but, as there were many resemblances between French and English sounds and letters, not much harm was done. Real harm, however, resulted from an attempt in the sixteenth century to introduce etymological spelling, or what writers (in some cases, poor scholars) thought to be so. Thus, for example, at the time of the Renaissance, many took to writing *debt*, *doubt* for the then current *dette*, *doute*; because the Latin primitives had *b*. Similarly, the M. E. *parfit* has become the modern *perfect*, and we owe the *sc* in *scythe* (<O. E. *sithe*) and *scent* (<Fr. *sent-ir* < Lat. *sent-ire*) to the analogy of the Latin *science*. The M. E. *iland* (<O. E. *ig-land*) has, in the same way, become our *island*, because it was supposed to have come from the Fr. *isle* (< Lat. *insula*).

The spoken language.

513. The tendencies referred to in par. 512 affect mainly the written language. But, in the eighteenth century (Bailey's dictionary was published in 1721, and Johnson's in 1755), steps were taken to make the spoken language uniform. The dictionary indicated first the stress and later (Kenrick's, in 1773), the sounds of the vowels.

Influence of dictionaries.

The use of dictionaries has produced two effects. It has led, in a slight degree, to modern pronunciation being changed to follow the anomalies of our spelling; thus, we no longer pronounce *sewer*, *shore*, and in *courteous*, the first syllable is now rather *court* than *curt*, and *wont* (wũnt)

is coming to be sounded *won't* (wōnt). But by far the greater effect is the tendency towards uniformity.

514. As we have already seen (506), we lost in the Middle English period the power of forming self-explaining compounds. Many of the Old English prefixes, too, disappeared towards the close of the Middle, or the beginning of the Modern, English period; others have been confounded with other prefixes: thus, for example, *gethincan* has become *bethink*, and the Romanic *dis-* has almost driven out the O. E. *mis-*: *misbelieve* has become *disbelieve*. Suffixes have suffered in the same way: thus, for example, in O. E. we have masc. *-er*, fem. *-ster*, and, in French, masc. *-er*, fem. *-ess*, and masc. *-stre*, fem. *-stresse*. The French *-ster* was confounded with the O. E. *-ster*, making the ending, appear that of a masc. noun and giving us a new fem. suffix in *-stress* (242).

Word-
formation.

But Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes have fully replaced our losses.

515. Two tendencies have shown themselves in our vocabulary: freedom in introducing foreign words, and, opposed to this, the effort to check innovation and "fix" the language. Thus, in the sixteenth century, many, like Sir Thomas Elyot, not only imitated the style of classical writers but imported words from Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian, with the avowed intention of "enriching our tongue and making it copious." Others, however, like Ascham, felt that large borrowing would corrupt rather than improve the language. These were the "purists," and their influence tended to prevent unlimited borrowing. But, notwithstanding, Modern English is especially remarkable for the immense number of additions to its vocabulary. It has been calculated that Dr. Murray's English Dictionary will contain, when completed, about a quarter of a million words. More than half of these have come into use during the present half century, being chiefly scientific and technical terms. As to the sources of our vocabulary: if we examine an ordinary dictionary, we find less than one-fourth of the words of purely English origin; but the number of such words in spoken English is far greater. Estimating the proportion of the elements by the frequency of their occurrence, we find that about 32 out of 40 words, in our best writers, are genuine English; the rest being from classical or minor sources. But the ratio of the foreign to the English element varies according to the subject

Vocabulary
General
influences.

Copiousness.

Sources.

treated of, science and philosophy using a far greater percentage of words of classical origin.

516. We shall now consider how and when the almost unmixed English of the Teutonic settlers developed into the highly composite English of modern times.

THE FOREIGN ELEMENT IN THE VOCABULARY.

LATIN.

First
Period.

517. Latin loan-words were the first adopted.

(1). Some of them had, no doubt, been incorporated before the English invaded Britain; for we know that there had been a good deal of intercourse between the Teutonic tribes and the Latin races. Examples are

chalk, kettle, mint, short, coulter (plough), fuller (cloth).

(2). A few Latin words also came through Celtic—the result of the Roman invasion. These are

(a). Geographical names containing *coln* <Lat. *colonia* (colony); *chester*, *caster*, or *cester* <O.E. *ceaster* < Lat. *castra* (camp). Examples are

Lincoln, Lancaster, Winchester, Worcester.

(b). And the following other words:

lake, mount, port, mile, street, wall, wick, wine.

Latin words, introduced before the coming of the Roman missionaries in A.D. 597, are known as the Latin of the *First Period*.

Second
Period.

518. To the Roman missionaries (497) we owe some words which are either pure Latin, or Latinized Greek or Hebrew—about two hundred in all.

(1). At first, naturally, the new words were connected with religion. Examples are

altar, bishop, candle, chalice, creed, deacon, devil, font.

(2). In the course of time, other words were introduced to express natural objects and articles from abroad. Examples are

lily, plant, doe, trout, butter, cook, copper, fork, kiln,
pillow, shambles, silk, sock, tippet.

Latin words, introduced between 597 and the Norman Conquest, are known as Latin of the *Second Period*.

Number of
loan-words.

The Latin loan-words of the first two periods are said to number one hundred and eight. Others were also borrowed,

but they have disappeared, or have been replaced by Latin words of later introduction.

519. During the Middle ages, Latin was the language of the learned professions. University professors delivered their lectures in Latin; and it was spoken by ecclesiastics and other scholars. Some of our loan-words are also traceable to the Latin, or Vulgate, version of the Bible, which was used before the appearance of Wyclif's translation. All these Latin words are less changed than our early borrowings through Norman French (7). Examples are

Third
Period.

abominable, absolute, sacrament, scribe, opprobrious,
parson, canon.

We find, besides, other words from the same root, through French. Such words are called *doublets*: they have been differentiated by stress or dialectical peculiarities. Examples are

Doublets.

abbreviate, abridge; acquiesce, acquit; aggravate, aggrieve;
appreciate, appraise; approximate, approach; cadence, chance.

Latin words introduced between the Conquest and the Renaissance (1480) constitute the Latin of the *Third Period*.

520. The Renaissance revolutionized the culture and modes of thought of early modern Europe. The study of Latin and Greek then affected the style of English writers, whose influence on the language was now great, owing to the increased circulation of books after the introduction of printing. The religious and political disputes of the sixteenth century contributed to the same end; for much attention was given to writers whose style, based upon classical models, influenced even those who were ignorant of the ancient classics. The growing importance of Science and Philosophy, and, until recently, the almost exclusive study of classics in the Grammar Schools of England, helped also to swell the classical, and, especially, the Latin element in our language. For a long time, indeed, Latin continued to be the language of the most important writings. To secure permanency for their works, authors thought it necessary to write them in Latin. Bacon, for example, had his *Novum Organum* translated into Latin. This language, too, was that of diplomacy until superseded by French. Milton, Cromwell's secretary, for example, wrote his official correspondence in Latin.

Fourth
Period.

At first, under the influence of the Renaissance, the influx was so great that it threatened to swamp the native element. This tendency was, however, soon checked by the

First effects
of Renaissance.

Reformation, itself a popular and Teutonic movement, which led also to the rejection of certain loan-words, some of which had been introduced even before this period: for example,

facinorous, ludibundness, mulierosity,
immoriginous, stultiloquy, stramineous.

Latin words, introduced at and since the Renaissance, constitute the Latin of the *Fourth Period*.

Naturali-
zation.

The naturalization of such words has generally affected the suffix only, and the verbs have been formed from the stem of the infinitive or of the perfect participle. Examples are

annals < *annal-es*; innocence < *innocent-ia*;
audacious < *audac-is*; lave < *lav-are*; penetrate < *penetrat-um*.

Number of
loan-words.

From the Latin loan-words of this period (estimated at 2,400), and to a less extent from the Greek, we have an immense number of derivatives. From one hundred and fifty Greek and Latin root-words, for example, it has been calculated that we have nearly thirteen thousand words.

GREEK.

At first
indirectly
introduced.

521. From Greek, too, though in smaller numbers than from Latin, we have borrowed much in recent times. Until the Renaissance, when Greek was first studied in the Universities, all our Greek words came to us through Latin or French. Of the two hundred Latin loan-words of the second period, at least one-third were originally Greek; so that they are now greatly changed in form: for example,

alms < O.E. *ælmesse* < Lat. *eleemosyna* < Gr. *eleemosune*;
blame < O.F. *blasmer* < Lat. *blasphem-are* < Gr. *blasphem-ein*.

Since 1480,
both direct-
ly and
indirectly.

Since the Renaissance, many have come direct, but others have come through Latin and French as before, or through other languages, as Italian or Spanish. The following are examples of Greek loan-words: (1) from the original, (2) through Latin (3) through French:

- (1) analysis, bigamy, epidemic, telegraph, zoology;
- (2) alms, angel, bishop, Christ, devil, desk;
- (3) blame, dropsy, fancy, ink, surgeon, jealousy.

CELTIC.

Few; chiefly
geographical.

522. The Celts, or ancient Britons, were quite different from the English invaders in language, religion, and manners and customs. The English, too, waged a war of extermination against them. The number of Celtic loan-words is, therefore, very small, consisting chiefly of Geographical names adopted by the conquerors: as,

Avon, Arran, Derwent, Exe, Mendip. Ouse, Usk;

and names containing, for example, *aber* and *inver* (mouth of river); *Caer*, or *Car* (castle); *inch* (island); *kill* (church); *strath* (broad valley); and *exe*, *axe*, or *ux* (river): as,

Aberdeen, Inverness, Carlisle, Caernarvon, Inchcape, Exeter, Kilkenny, Strathelyde, Axminster, Uxbridge.

(2). And a few other words, as,

bannock, mattock, bog, brogue, cairn, claymore, glen.

NORSE.

523. As the habits and the language of the Danes were much the same as those of the Anglian tribes, they readily adopted the English language. Norse words, no doubt, were used early in the spoken language, but it was not till about 1200 or later, that they appeared in literature. About 500 words in all are believed to have come to us from this source. Norse words had a tendency to resist palatalization, that is, the change of *k* to *ch*, or of *g* to *j* or *y*, which regularly took place in genuine English. *Guest*, *give*, *drag*, *egg*, *key*, *kid*, for example, are, accordingly, regarded as Norse; while English words like *get* have retained the *g* under the same influence. Our pronouns also were affected: for the Norse *they*, *their*, *them*, displaced the O.E. *hie*, *hiera* and *hem* (295). Examples of other loan-words are:

Akin to
Anglian.

Character-
istics.

(1). Geographical names, found chiefly in Northern England or the Lowlands of Scotland, where the Danes made themselves most felt. These contain, for example, the Norse words: *beck* (brook), *by* (town), *dal* (dale), *fell* (hill), *force*, or *foss* (waterfall), *holm* (islet), *kirk* (church), *scar* (detached rock), *thorp* and *toft* (village), *thwaite* (place); as,

Geographical
and other
names.

Beckford, Grimsby, Avondale, Snafell, Fossling, Langholm, Selkirk, Scarborough, Althorp, Invertoft, Braithwaite.

(2). Other names—many beginning with *sk* (Eng. *sh*) and two verbs ending in *sk* (reflexive), with patronymics in *-son* (Eng. *-ing*); as,

skin, bask, busk, dregs, kilt, raise, swain, Anderson.

FRENCH.

524. Probably the largest number of loan-words in our vocabulary are from the French, Latin standing next.

From the time of the Confessor until the loss of Normandy in 1205, and through literature for some years afterwards, came the Norman French element. Most of the words were originally Latin, introduced into Gaul by its Roman conquerors. Being used orally by the ancient French,

First Period:
Norman
French.

Most, origin-
ally Latin.

they had become greatly altered before being introduced into English (7). Moreover, the language of the Norman settlers in England, being influenced by English and un-influenced by the French of the continent, developed by the time of Edward III. many differences from the language then spoken in France. From this Anglo-French dialect, as it has been called, we gradually adopted words which became part of the texture of English speech, being, most of them, of equal value and use with words of native origin. Such *hybrids* (that is, words formed from more languages than one) as *grandfather*, *grandmother*, show the close intimacy of the connection. How slowly, however, this element came in, appears from the fact that Prof. Skeat has found only 3,400 French words in thirty-one books written before 1400. Even Chaucer has less than thirteen per cent. of foreign words in his Prologue.

Anglo-French dialect.

Hybrids.

Loan-words slowly introduced.

Characteristics.

Generally speaking, most of the loan-words relate to the Church, government, war, and knighthood, or to new things, introduced by the Normans : but it is impossible to classify them exhaustively. It should be noted, however, that the Normans introduced the Romance fashion of hereditary names, or surnames. Before this an Englishman had but one name. Examples of words from this source are

duke, mayor, aid, battle, attorney, suit, summons, friar,
 tonsure, lesson, venison, chase, beef, pork, olive,
 salmon, cherry, aunt, cousin, nephew.

Some replaced O.E. words.

Some words had the same meaning as some English words, and either drove out the English equivalents, as, for example, has been the case with the first of each of the following pairs :

ikenned, conceived ; *vondinge*, temptation ; *steih*, ascended ;
yelderes, trespassers ; *ariste*, resurrection ;

Production of synonyms.

or both English and Norman words were retained with a difference of meaning, thus helping to enrich our vocabulary with synonyms. Examples are (the first of each pair is of French origin)

deliver, free ; dame, lady ; gain, win ; terror, dread ;
 purchase, buy ; route, road ; humility, lowliness ;
 county, shire ; strange, uncouth ; sage, wise.

Bilingualism.

Indeed, during the period in which both Norman French and English were spoken in England, there came into use a duplicate system of words, known as *bilingualism*. To be intelligible to both the upper and the lower classes, it was felt to be needful at times to use the speech of both. Examples of such pairs, some of which are even now retained, are

assemble, meet ; acknowledge, confess ; use, wont ;
 testament, will ; dissemble, cloak.

A few Norman-French loan-words, however, were of Celtic origin, adopted from the old Gauls by the Roman conquerors, and in turn adopted by the Northmen. Examples are

Some, originally Celtic;

bar, bribe, ear, career, harness, picket, vassal.

A few were Teutonic, adopted from the Franks by the German conquerors of the Roman Province of Gaul. Examples are

Teutonic;

guardian, marshal, banner, hatchet, motley, seneschal.

A few also were Norse, from the original language of the Northmen themselves. Examples are

Norse.

barber, brandish, frisk, flotsam, jolly.

The loan-words of this period are known as *Norman French*, or French of the *First Period*.

525. Words from Parisian French, which had become the standard language of France, began to come in towards the end of the thirteenth or the beginning of the fourteenth century. Some of the English courtiers even spoke this French, but it does not seem to have displaced, in any degree, the general use of English. Norman French had, by this time, almost ceased to affect our vocabulary, and we had begun to borrow chiefly from literary French. During the fifteenth century, especially towards its close, such words became more numerous chiefly owing to the translations into English by Caxton, Mallory, and others, of works in French. Examples of French of this period are

Second Period:
Parisian French.

Influence of Courtiers;

Translations;

poetry, amuse, casual, cordial, adulation, artificer, chronicle, demure, encourage.

Some of the loan-words were, however, the names of products imported by way of Calais. Examples are

Commerce.

figs, raisins, saffron, ginger, incense, liquorice, rice, peony, ivory.

This element is called *Parisian French*, or French of the *Second Period*.

526. French loan-words adopted before modern times became completely naturalized, being subject to English rules of pronunciation. Compare, for example, *rage* with the late comer *mirage*; and *feast*, *suit*, *chandler*, with *fête*, *suite*, *chandelier*, which are the same words introduced a second time.

Naturalization.

The last class of French loan-words may be dated from 1500. Even before the time of Elizabeth, when writers drew much of their materials from French, English had borrowed many words from Modern French. French influence increased through the marriage of Charles I. with

Third Period:
Modern French.

Henrietta Maria of France, and rose to its height after the Restoration, declining about the time of the death of Pope (1744). Although Dryden protested against the excessive use of French words, he followed, to some extent, the fashion of the court, and in his vocabulary we find French words that are now no longer current. Examples of words introduced during this period are

chagrin, repartee, debut, dejeuner, elite, caress, reveille, corps, tirailleur, personnel, precis.

Literature
prefers
genuine Eng-
lish words.

As Paris has long been the criterion of fashion and social taste, French influence still exists, but it hardly appears in the vocabulary of pure literature. The best English writers now show a preference for genuine English words, as being simpler and more forcible—a tendency which Tennyson has done much to foster. Words borrowed since the seventeenth century are used mainly in scientific works, or to represent French ideas, as *emeute*, *plebiscite*, *prestige*.

Naturali-
zation.

When first introduced Modern French words retain their pronunciation. Some, however, gradually become naturalized, but some retain their pronunciation wholly or in part, and the pronunciation of others is unsettled. Examples of these classes are

brilliant, corset, deference ; prestige, glacis ; ballet, bureau, depot, clique, douceur.

The French loan-words, introduced since 1500, are known as *Modern French*, or French of the *Third Period*.

DUTCH.

Dutch
settlers
and sailors.

527. In the reign of Edward III., Dutch weavers were induced to settle in some parts of England, and, under Elizabeth, English soldiers, who aided the Dutch against the Duke of Parma, brought home some loan-words with them. Still later, after the fall of Antwerp, in 1385, many of its inhabitants settled near the Thames. Dutch sailors also gave us some nautical names ; and we have a few from South Africa. Examples are

deck, dollar, hogshead, boor, sutler, waggon, easel.

FROM OTHER LANGUAGES.

Spanish.

528. During the latter half of the sixteenth, and the first half of the seventeenth century, the Spanish language was widely known in England, owing mainly to the many points of contact, friendly and hostile, between the two countries. Examples of words from this source are

Armada, tornado, flotilla, punctilio, cargo, cigar, alligator, don, duenna, negro.

A few words have also been introduced from the Portuguese. Examples are

albatross, caste, molasses, binnacle, lasso.

529. From the time of Chaucer till that of Milton, Italian. Italian exercised a powerful influence on our literature, but scarcely any upon our vocabulary. As a result of the Renaissance, it was well known to English courtiers during the reigns of Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and Mary; and the English authors of the time, who translated Italian works, copied some of the peculiarities of the writers. The study of Italian architecture and of the fine arts, and the importation of Italian manufactures, contributed also to the increase of our vocabulary. But the accessions from Italian are not numerous; and, on the establishment of the Commonwealth, and especially on the later incoming of French tastes and fashions, Italian influence rapidly declined. Examples are

miniature, balustrade, canto, cartoon, vermicelli,
piano-forte, velvet, bandit, madrigal.

530. From Modern High German we have received but High German. few loan-words (about twenty-four in all), principally because it was late in the field of literature, science, and art. Examples are

cobalt, waltz, plunder, swindler, meerschaum.

531. But "every country in the world seems to have brought its verbal manufacture to the intellectual market of England. Travel, commerce, war, literature, science, art, have brought us words." Other sources. Examples of such are:

ARABIC: alchemy, alcohol, almanack, assassin, sofa.

PERSIAN: curry, chess, jackal, caravan, shawl.

HINDU: thug, loot, shampoo, sugar, coolie, toddy.

HEBREW: amen, cherub, jubilee, leviathan, seraph.

AMERICAN: guano, hominy, hammock, squaw, wigwam.

CHINESE: bohea, junk, tea, nankeen, typhoon.

MALAY: bamboo, bantam, gong, rattan, sago.

TURKISH: bey, caftan, fez, janizary, ottoman, shagreen.

POLYNESIAN: boomerang, kangaroo, taboo, paramatta.

RUSSIAN: czar, drosky, knout, ukase, steppe.

HUNGARIAN: hussar, tokay.

TARTAR: cossack, khan, mammoth.

AFRICAN: assegai, gorilla, kraal, canary, chimpanzee.

Some of these, and other such words, have retained their original forms; but a great many have been altered by naturalization, or by indirect introduction.

APPENDIX TO SECTION XVII.

BY J. W. CONNOR, B. A.

The following will prove interesting, as showing some of the grounds for the statements on pp. 9-12 and 316-318. Table I. shows the correspondence of the forms of the personal pronouns and the singular personal endings of the copula in a number of the Arian languages.

Table II. shows the correspondence of the forms of some other words in the Arian languages. From this table we conclude that, before the Arians migrated, they had cattle, yokes, and houses; that they recognized not only blood but marriage relationships; and that they could count up to a hundred at least, and knew time divisions larger than the month. Note par. 493 (4).

Table III. indicates some of the grounds for the grouping of the Teutonic languages in pp. 9-10; the first seven comparisons showing the great similarity in the languages compared; and the remainder, the close relationship between English and Old Frisian on the one hand and between Gothic and Old Norse on the other. Accents indicate long vowels. Note par. 494 (1).

I.

MOD. ENG.	OLD ENG.	LITHUANIAN.	O. SLAVONIC.	LATIN.	GREEK.	AVESTAN.	SANSKRIT.
am	eom	esmi	jesmi	sum	eimi	ahmi	asmi
art	eart	esi	jesi	es	essi	ahi	asi
is	is	esti	jestu	est	esti	asti	asti
I	Ic	asz	azu	ego	egó	azem	abam
me	me (mee)	manen	men	mé	me	má	má (m)
thou	thú	tu	ty	tú	tu (Doric)	tú	twam

II.

OLD ENG.	O. SLAVONIC.	BALTIC (LITH'N).	KELTIC (IRISH).	LATIN.	GREEK.	AVESTAN.	SANSKRIT.
cú (cow)	gov-endo	guowis	bó	bó-s	bou-s	gao	gau-s
cowu (ewe)	ovi-ca	avi-s	óí	oui-s	o(w)i-s	hu (boar)	avi-s
sw-in (swine)	sv-inja		su-ig	sús	sús		sú-kara (boar)
æcer (land)				ager	agro-s		ajra-s
geoc (yoke)	igo	junga-s		ingu-m	zugo-n	yuj (join)	yuga
bróðhor	bratru	broter-elis	bratir (dear)	fráter		brátar	bhrátar
swear	svekru	szeszura-s		šocer	hekuro-s	qaçura	evaçura-s
(father in-law)							

MOD. ENG.	OLD ENG.	OLD FRISIAN.	DUTCH.	OLD SAXON.	OLD HIGH GERMAN.	OLD NORSE.	GOTHIC.
widwe (widow)	vidwa	fedb	vidua				vidhavá
timber	domu (house)	dórus	domu-s forés				dama-s dur (for dur)
dor, duru (door)	menseci	mí	ménsi-s				mása
mónath (month)	suto	cét	centu-m				çata-m
hund-red	jara (spring)	snéçta	{ niv-em ningit (it snows)				snih (to adhere)
gér (year)							
snáw (snow)							
III.							
MOD. ENG.	OLD ENG.	OLD FRISIAN.	DUTCH.	OLD SAXON.	OLD HIGH GERMAN.	OLD NORSE.	GOTHIC.
all	all	alle	al	al	al	all-r	all-s
blood	blód	blód	bloed	blód	bluot	blóðh	blóth
deep	deóp	diop	diep	diop	tiof	ðjúp-r	ðiups
five	fif	fif	vijf	fif	finf	fimm	fimf
good	gód	gód	goed	gód	guot	góðh-r	gód-s
brother	bróðhor	broder	broeder	brothar	bruder	broðhir	brothar
father	fæder	fader	vader	fadar	fater	faðhir	fadar
bone	bán	bén	been	bén	bein	bein	baina-bagns
home	hám	hám	heim	hém	heim	heim-r	haim-s
green	gréne	gréne	groen	gréne	gruoni	groenn	(village)
hear	héran	{ hera hora	hooren	horian	hóran	heyra	hausjan
eye	éage	áge	oog	óga	ouga	auga	augó
tooth	tóðh	{ tóðh tond	tand	tand	zand	tonn	tunthus
write	writan	writa	ryten	writan	rizzan (scratch)	ritá	writ-s (a point)
other	ódher	other	ander	ódhar	andar	annar	anthar
ewe	eowu	ander ey (Mod.)	ooi	andar (L. G.) ouwe	awi	oe-r	awi-thi

XVIII. PREFIXES, SUFFIXES, AND ROOT-WORDS.

PREFIXES.

NATIVE.

I. LIVING.

By-, *be-* (about, thoroughly; forming transitives): begirdle, befoul.

Mis- (wrong, not): misdeed, miscall (sometimes Fr., as in *mischief*).

Un- (not; with verbs, the reverse): un-English, untruth, undo.

After, *fore*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out*, *over*, *th(o)r-ough*, and *up*, which are still separate words, are used like prefixes, and are sometimes called SEPARABLE prefixes.

II. DEAD.

A- (on): a live (<on life [384]).

A- (of): adown, afresh, akin.

A- (intensive): ashamed, athirst.

A- (out): abide, arise, arouse, accurse, affright.

A-, *an-* (against): along, answer, acknowledge.

A-, *e-* (meaningless): afford, aware, e-nough.

At-: ado (441), twit, (<wit "to note").

For-: forbear, forbid, forego.

Ne-, *n-* (not): never.

With- (against): withhold.

ROMANIC AND GREEK.

I. LIVING.

Ante- (before): antedate, anticipate.

Anti- Gr. (against): antipope.

Bis- *bi-* (two, twice): biped, bi-monthly.

Com-, *co-* (together, strongly): co-heir, commingle, concur, collect, correct, countenance.

Contra-, Fr. *counter* (against): contradict, controvert, counterbalance.

De- (down, from, the reverse, thoroughly): depress, depart, deodorize, desiccate.

Demi- (half): demigod.

Dis-, Fr. *des-*, *de-* (asunder, the reverse): dissever, dislike, diffuse, diverge, descant, defy.

Ex-, *e-* (out, out and out): ex-president, evolve, effect. Gr. *exodus*, ec-stasy.

In-, Fr. *en-*, *em-* (in, on): in crust, impassioned, illuminate, irradiate, engrave, embolden.

In- (not) incautious, imperfect, illiberal, irregular.

Inter-, Fr. *enter-* (within, among): interchange, introspection, enterprize.

Non- (not): non-denominational.

Post- (after): postdate.

Pre- (before): prearrange.

Red-, *re-* (back, again): readmit, reintegrate.

Retro- (backward): retroactive.

Semi- (half): semipolitical.

Sub- (under, upwards): sub-examiner, succumb, suffix, suggest, summon, suppress, surreptitious, suspend.

Super-, Fr. *sur-* (over): supercargo, surpass.

Trans-, Fr. *tres-* (across); tranship, traverse, trespass.

Ultra- (beyond): ultra-radical.

Vice- (in place of): vice-consul.

II. DEAD.

A-, *ab-* (off, from): avert, abnormal, ab-s-tract.

Ad-, Fr. *a-* (to): adjudge, abbreviate = abridge, accompany, affix, aggrieve, allocate, ammunition, annul, applaud, arrange, assign, attune, achieve.

Ambi-, *am-* (both, on both sides): ambidextrous, amputate.

Amphi-, Gr. (on both sides): amphitheatre.

An-, *a-*, Gr. (not): anarchy, apathetic.
Ana-, Gr. (up, back): analysis.
Apo-, Gr. (from): apogee, aphelion.
Bene- (well): benefactor.
Cata-, Gr. (down): catastrophe, cathedral.
Circum- (around): circumnavigate, circuit.
Dia-, Gr. (through, in two): diameter.
Dys-, Gr. (ill): dyspepsia.
En-, *endo-*, Gr. (in): energy, emblem, ellipsis, endogen.
Epi-, Gr. (upon): epigram, ephemeral.
Exo-, Gr. (outwards): exogen.
Hemi-, Gr. (half): hemisphere.
Hyper-, Gr. (over): hypercritical.
Hypo-, Gr. (under): hypophosphite, hyphen.

Meta-, Gr. (after, change): metaphysics, metathesis, method.
Male- (ill): malcontent.
Ob- (in front of, against): obstruct, occur, offer, oppress.
Para-, Gr. (beside, contrary to): paradox, parhelion.
Per-, Fr. *par-* (through, thoroughly, wrongly): permutation, pardon, pellucid; pervert.
Peri-, Gr. (around): perimeter.
Pro-, *por-*, Fr. *pur-* (forward, for): proconsul, portend, pursue.
Sed-, *se-* (apart): sedition, secede.
Sine- (without): sinecure.
Subter- (below): subterfuge.
Syn-, Gr. (together): syntax, sympathy, syllogism, system.

SUFFIXES.

NATIVE.

(Forming Nouns and Adjectives.)

I. LIVING.

-dom (rule, quality, collection): kingdom, wisdom, Saxondom.
-ed (participial, and "possessing"): loved, heard, aged.
-en (part., and "made of," "belonging to"): given, silken, heathen.
-er (one who): walker.
-fold (times): manifold.
-ful: truthful.
-hood (condition): childhood (= *head*, in *Godhead*).
-ing (part. and noun): hearing, dwelling.
-ish (belonging to, somewhat) Scottish, Scotch, blackish.
-less (without): fadeless.
-ly (like; also adv.): manly, falsely.
-ness (the being): sickness.
-some (like): burdensome.
-ster (one who): trickster, spinster.
-ward(s) (turned to): cityward(s).
-y, -ie (like, belonging to, little): tricky, clayey, Billy, Nellie.

(Forming Verbs.)

I. LIVING.

-en (become, make): deepen, fatten.

II. DEAD.

-d, -m, -n (that which): flood, bloom, bairn.
-er, -r (means, place): finger, lair.
-fast (firm): steadfast (also in *shame-faced* = "shame-fast").
-ing (sprung from, little): Carling, farthing.
-kin (little): lambkin, Wilkins.
-le, -el (little, means): runnel, handle.
-ling (= *l* + *-ing*, little, contemptible): duckling, hireling.
-ter, -der (that which): laughter, bladder.
-lock, -ledge (state): wedlock, knowledge.
-ock (little): hillock.
-red (state): hatred.
-th, -t (state or act, in order): truth, theft, tenth.
-ther, -ter (one who): brother, daughter.

II. DEAD.

-k (often): hark.
-le, -er (often): sparkle, sputter.
-se (make): cleanse.

ROMANIC AND GREEK.

(Forming Nouns and Adjectives.)

I. LIVING.

- able (that can be): reliable.
- ade (state, collection): blockade, colonnade.
- age (act, state, product, collection, place): bondage, postage, village, hermitage.
- al (act of, belonging to): withdrawal, tidal.
- an, -ian (belonging to, one who): pagan, publican, Canadian.
- ard (one who): dynamitard.
- ee (one that is): payee, (= -y, in *jury, attorney*).
- er, -eer, -ier, -ar (one who): archer, engineer, brigadier, vicar.
- y (place, state): tannery, villainy, -e-ry (state, product, collection): slavery, roguery, poetry, rookery.
- cy (state): bankruptcy, tenancy.
- ess (one who: fem.): governess.
- ese (belonging to): Chinese, Carlylese, courteous (by analogy).
- et, -let (little): floweret, eirelet.
- ic (belonging to, like): athletic, domestic.
- ical (= *ic + al*): angelical.
- ive, -ory (inclined to): plaintive, determinative, advisory.
- ism, Gr. (the being, what is, doctrine of): Anglicism, mannerism, Puseyism, witticism (by analogy).
- ine, -in (like): adamantine.
- ist, Gr. (one who habitually): copyist, anti-revisionist (cf. gymnast, enthusiast).
- ite (belonging to, adherent of): Israelite, Parnellite.

- ment (act of, means, result): judgment, pavement.
- ose, -ous (full of): grandiose, furious.

II. DEAD.

- ant, -ent (= -ing): observant, consistent.
- ance, -ence, -ancy, -ency (the being from -ant, -ent): observance, consistency = consistency.
- ar (like): angular.
- ary (belonging to): tributary.
- ate (office): consulate.
- esque (like): picturesque.
- ice, -ise, -ess (quality, the being): justice, riches (255), franchise.
- il (belonging to): civil.
- iff (inclined to): plaintiff.
- men, -me: regimen, regime.
- mony (state of): sanctimony.
- nd, (that is to be): dividend.
- one, -oon (great): trombone, balloon.
- or (one who, quality, act): governor, ardor, behavior.
- t, -te (= -ed): elect, favorite, licentiate, postulate.
- t, -ot, (one who, an enthusiast for): prophet, patriot.
- ion, -tion, -ation (act or state of): rebellion, solution, salvation.
- tor, -trix (the doer): competitor.
- trum, -tre (object or means): spectrum, spectre.
- tude (the being): fortitude.
- ty (the being): cruelty, fragility.
- ule, -cule, -cle (little): globule, animalecule, particle.
- ure, -ture (act of), departure, imposture.

(Forming Verbs.)

DEAD.

- ate (originally Lat. part. suffix): assassinate, vaccinate.
- fy, Fr. (to make): fructify, beautify.

- ish, Fr. (become, make, treat as): flourish, cherish.
- ize, Gr., or -ise (to make): pauperize.

ROOT-WORDS.

The following lists contain the important Latin and Greek root-words, given in the forms that best account for the English derivatives. The sign = stands between doublets. In a few cases, are added derivatives not directly from the word cited, but from the same root, with a different suffix.

LATIN.

Acris (sharp); *aceo* (be sour): eager, acrid, acerbity, acetic.
Acuo, acutum (sharpen): acute.
Aedes (house): edifice, edify.
Aequus (level, just): equal, adequate, iniquity, equinox, equivalent.
Aestimo, aestimatum (value): estimate = esteem = aim.
Aeternus (eternal): eternity.
Aevum (age): coeval, longevity.
Ager (field): agrarian, peregrination.
Ago, actum (do, drive): agent, agitate, actual, ambiguous, agile.
Albus (white): alb, albumen, auburn.
Alius (other); *alter* (the other): alien, alibi, alter, alternate, altercation.
Amo, amatum (love); *amicus* (friend): amour, amicable, inimical, enemy.
Amplus (large): ample, amplitude.
Ango (to squeeze); *anxius* (anxious): angina, anguish, anxiety.
Angulus (angle): angular, triangle.
Anima (breath); *animus* (mind): animal, animate, animadvert.
Annus (year); *annulus* (a ring): annual, biennial, annular.
Appello, appellatum (call): appeal, repeal, peal, appellation.
Aptus (fitted): apt, adapt, inept.
Aqua (water): aqueous, aquatic.
Arbiter (umpire): arbitrary, arbitrate.
Arcus (bow): arc, arcade, archery.
Ardeo, arsum (burn): ardent, arson.
Argentum (silver); *arguo* (make clear): argentiferous, argue.
Arma (fittings, arms): armorial, armature, army = armada, alarm.
Ars (art): artistic, artifice, artisan.
Artus (joint): article, articulate.
Asper (rough): asperity, exasperate.
Audax (bold); *audacia* (boldness): audacious, audacity.
Audio (hear): audience, audible, auditor, obedient, obey.

Augeo, auctum (increase); *auxilium* (help): augment, author, auxiliary.
Auris (ear): aurist, auricle, auricular.
Aurum (gold): auriferous, oriole.
Avidus, avarus (greedy): avidity, avaricious, avarice.
Avis (bird); *auspex* (bird-seer): *augur* (soothsayer): aviary, auspicious, augury, inaugurate.

Baculum (stick): bacillus.
Beatus (blessed): beatitude, beatific.
Bellum (war): bellicose, belligerent, rebel = revel.
Bene (well); *benignus* (kind); *bonus* (good): benefit, benignity, bounty.
Bini (by two's); *bis, bi* (twice): binary, biennial, biscuit, binomial.
Brevis (brief): brevity, abridge.

Caballus (nag): cavalry = chivalry, cavalcade, cavalier.
Cado (fall); *casus* (a fall): cadence = chance, occidental, deciduous, decadence, decay, casual, case.
Caelum (heaven): celestial, ceiling, cerulean (sky blue).
Calx, calc-is (lime); *calculus* (pebble): calcine, chalk, calculable.
Campus (plain): encamp, campaign.
Candeo (be white, burn); *incendium* (fire): candor, candidate, candle, incendiary, incense.
Canis (dog): canine.
Cano, canto (sing): canticle, incentive, canorous, cant, chant.
Capio, captum (take): captive, recipient, accept, receive, cape, chapel.
Capita (heads); *capillus* (hair): capitulation, cape (headland), capitol, capital = cattle = chattel.
Cardo, cardin-is (hinge): cardinal.
Caro, carn-is (flesh): carnal, carnivorous, carnation, charnel, carrion.

Carus (dear): charity, cherish.

Castus (pure): castigate, chastise.

Cautus (careful); *causa* (cause): in-cautious, causal, excuse, recusant.

Cavus (hollow): cavern, cave, cage.

Cedo (go, give way); *cesso* (leave off): cede, decess, accede, cease.

Celer (swift): celerity, accelerate.

Censeo (judge): censor, census.

Centum (hundred): cent, centurion, centesimal, centenary, centuple.

Cerno, cretum (sift): discern, discreet, concern, secretion, discriminate.

Certus (resolved): certify, incertitude.

Cingo, cinctum (gird): cincture, precinct, succinct.

Circus (circle); *circum* (around): circle, circulate, circle, circuit.

Cito (arouse): cite, excite, incite.

Civis (citizen); *civitas* (citizenship): civic, civilize, city, citadel.

Caleo (be warm); *calor* (heat): caloric, caldron, chafe, scald.

Clamo (cry out): clamor, claim.

Clarus (bright): clear, clarify, clarion.

Claudo, clausum (shut): conclude, clause, close.

Clino, (bend); clivus (slope): incline, declension = declination, declivity.

Cognosco, cognitum (find out): recognition, cognizant.

Colo, cultum (till); *colonus* (tiller): culture, cultivate, colony.

Comes, comit-is (companion): concomitant, viscount, county.

Commodus (convenient): commodity, incommode.

Communis (common): communion, community, excommunicate.

Copia (plenty): copious, copy.

Coctum (cooked): decoction, concoct.

Cor, cord-is (= heart): accord, discord, record, core, quarry (prey).

Corona, corolla (garland): crown, coronation, coroner, corollary.

Corpus, corpor-is (body): corps, corpse, corporal, corpsicle, corpulent.

Credo, creditum (believe): creed, credit, credible, incredulous.

Creo (make); *cresco* (grow): recreation, crescent, increase, recruit.

Crepe, crepitum (crackle): decrepit, decrepitate, crevice = crevasse.

Crux, cruc-is (cross): cruciferous, exorcise, crusade, crucify.

Cupio (desire): cupidity.

Cura (care): curious, sinecure, procure, sure = secure (without care).

Curro, cursum (run): concur, current, cursive, course, succor.

Debeo, debitum (owe): debt, debture, devoir, due.

Decem (ten); decimal, decimate.

Decco (befit); *decor* (grace): decent, decorate.

Dens (tooth): dental, indent.

Deus (God): deity, deify, deist.

Dictum (said); *dicatum* (assigned): dictum, verdict, indict, dedicate.

Dies (day); *dial, diary, diurnal* = journal.

Digitus (finger, toe): digit, doit.

Dignus (worthy): dignify, condign, deign, disdain.

Do, datum (give, put); *donum* (gift): date, dative, donate, add, render.

Docco, doctum (teach): docile, doctor.

Doleo (grieve); *dolor* (grief): condole, dolorous, indolence, doleful.

Dominus (lord): dominate, domain, dominical, danger, dungeon.

Domus (house): domestic, domicile.

Dormio (sleep): dormant, dormitory.

Dubius (doubtful): dubious, doubt.

Duco, ductum (lead); *dux* (leader); *educatum* (brought up): adduce, reduce, conduit, duke, educate.

Duo (two): dual, duel, double.

Duro (endure); *durus* (hard): during, durable, duress, endure, indurate.

Edo, esum (eat); *esca* (food): edible, obese, esculent.

Emo, emptum (take, buy); *exemplum* (example): exempt, exemplify, sample, redemption = ransom.

Equus (horse); *equito* (ride): equitation, equitant, equestrian.

Erro (go wrong): errant, erratic, aberrant, aberration, erroneous.

Esse (to be); *futurus* (about to be): essence, present, entity, futurity.

Experior, expertum (try): experiment, experience, expert.

- Faber** (workman): fabricate, forge.
Facies (face): facial, superficial, surface, deface, façade, facetious.
Facio, factum (make); **facilis** (easy): fact, faction, affect, efficient, perfect, factor, feat, facility, faculty;
Fallo (deceive): fallacy, false, fail.
Fanum (temple) fane, profane, fanatic.
Fatum (spoken); **fabula** (tale); **fama** (speech): fate, ineffable, fabulous, infant, infantry, infamous.
Fecundus (fruitful); **felix** (happy); **femina** (woman): fecundate, felicity, feminine, female.
Fendo, fensum (strike); defend, fence.
Ferus, ferox (wild): fierce, ferocity.
Fero, latum (bear); **fertilis** (fertile): defer, efferent, dilate, ablative.
Ferrum (iron): ferreous, farrier.
Fido (trust); **fides** (faith); **foedera** (treaties): confide, defy (lit. renounce faith), affiance, fidelity.
Fixum (fastened): fix, crucifix.
Filius (son): filial, affiliate, Fitz-.
Fissum (cleft): fissile, fissure.
Fingo, fictum (make up); figment, fiction, feign, faint, figure.
Firmus (firm): affirm, confirm, farm.
Flagro (burn); **flamma** (flame): flagrant, conflagration, inflammatory.
Flecto, flexum (bend): inflect, flexor.
Fligo, flictum (strike): afflict, conflict, infliction.
Flo, flatum (blow): inflate, flatulent.
Flos, flor-is (flower); **floreo** (bloom): florist, florid, effloresce, flourish.
Fluo, fluxum (flow); **fluctus** (wave): fluid, influence, affluent, confluence, flux, flush, fluctuate.
Folium (leaf): foliage, exfoliate, folio, trefoil.
Fons, font-is (fountain): font, fount.
Fortē (by chance): fortuitous, fortune.
Fortis (strong); **forma** (form): fortitude, effort, comfort, force, formal.
Fossum (dug): fossil, fosse.
Frango, fractum (break): fragile = frail, fragment, fracture.
Frater (brother): fraternal, friar.
Frigeo (be cold); **frigidus** (cold): frigid, refrigerate.
Fruges, fructus (fruit); **fruor** (enjoy): frugivorous, fructify, fruition.
- Fugio, fugitum** (flee): fugitive, febrifuge, subterfuge, refugee, fugue.
Fulgeo (shine); **fulmen** (lightning): fulgency, effulgent, fulminate.
Fumus (smoke): fume, fumigate.
Fundo, fusum (pour); **futilis** (vain): foundry, refund, fusible, refuse, futile, refute, fount (of type).
- Gelu** (cold); **glacies** (ice): gelid, congeal, gelatine, glacial, glacier.
Genus, gener-is (race); **gens, gent-is** (nation); **genitum** (born); **ingenium** (genius): general, degenerate, congener, gentile, congenital, ingenious, gender.
Gero, gestum (carry); **agger** (heap): gerund, belligerent, congest, jest, gesture, exaggerate.
Glans, gland-is (acorn): gland, glandiform, glanders, glandule.
Globus (globe); **glomero** (gather); **gluten** (glue): globule, conglomerate, glutinous, agglutinate, glue.
Gradus, gressus (step): gradual, degree, congress, aggressive.
Grandis (large): grandee, grandeur, aggrandise, grandiloquent.
Granum (grain): granite, granule, ingrain, granary = garner, grange.
Gratus (grateful); **gratia** (favor): gratitude, gratify, ingratiate, gratis, gratuitous, grace, agree.
Gravis (heavy): gravity, aggravate, grief, aggrieve, grievance.
Grex, greg-is (flock): gregarious, aggregate, congregate, segregate.
- Habeo, habitum** (have, hold); **prohibeo** (forbid): **habilis** (active): habitude, inhabit, prohibitory, able.
Haereo, haesum (stick): adherent, inherent, cohesion, hesitate.
Halo (breathe): exhale, inhale.
Haustum (drawn): exhaust, oust.
Herba (grass): herbage, herbivorous.
Heres, hered-is (heir): heredity, hereditary, heritage, inherit.
Homo (man); **humanus** (human); **humus** (ground); **humilis** (low): homage, homicide, humane, ex-hume, humility, humble.
Honor (honor): **honestus** (honorable): honor, honorable, honest, honesty.

Hostis (enemy); *hospes*, *hospit-is* (host): host, hostile, hospital, hotel.

Ignis (fire): igneous, ignite.

Imitatum (imitated); *imago* (image): inimitable, imaginary.

Impero (command); *imperium* (rule): imperative, imperial, empire.

Insula (island): insular, peninsula, isle (not *island* [512]), isolate.

Integer (whole): integral, integrity, reintegrate, entire.

Intelligo, *intellectum* (understand): intelligent, intellectual.

Ira (anger): irate, irascible.

Itum (go); *initium* (beginning); *itinera* (journeys): adit, circuit, sedition, ambient, initiate, itinerant, commence, exit, issue, perish.

Jactum (thrown); *jaceo* (lie): abject, trajectory, adjective, conjecture, adjacent, jet, jetsam, jetty, jut.

Jungo, *junctum* (join); *jugum* (yoke): juncture, conjunction, jugular, conjugal, joint, junto.

Jus, *jur-is* (right, law); *judex*, *judic-is* (judge); *justus* (just): jurist, jurisdiction, juridical, judicial, judicious, juror, jury, injury.

Juvenis (young): juvenile, rejuvenate.

Juto (help): adjutant, aid.

Labor (work): laborious, elaborate.

Lapso (slip): lapse, elapse, collapse.

Lac, *lact-is* (milk): lacteal, lettuce.

Lacrima (tear): lachrymal.

Laedo, *laesum* (dash, hurt): elide, lesion, collision.

Lapis, *lapid-is* (stone): lapidary.

Later (sides): lateral, collateral.

Latus (broad): latitude.

Laud, *laudatum* (praise): laudable.

Lavo (wash); *lavanda* (things to be washed): lavatory, alluvial, laven-der, laundry, deluvial, deluge.

Laxus (loose): laxative, laxity, release.

Lego, *legatum* (appoint); *lex*, *leg-is* (law); *collega* (colleague): legate, legacy, legal = loyal, privilege, legitimate, college.

Lego, *lectum* (pick, read); *legio* (legion): legible, collect, lecture, lection = lesson, legionary.

Lenis (gentle): lenity, lenient.

Levis (light): levity, levant, lever, alleviate, elevator, relief.

Liber (book): library, libel.

Liber (free): liberate, liberal, liberty, libertine, deliver, livery.

Libra, *libella* (balance): libration, equilibrium, deliberate, level.

Licet (it is allowed); *linquo*, *lictum* (leave): license; illicit, relinquish, relic, reliet, leisure (O.Fr. *leisir*).

Ligo, *ligatum* (tie): ligature, liga-ment, religion, league, liable.

Liqueo (be moist): liquid, liquor, liquefy, liquidate, deliquesce.

Littera (letter): literary, literature, literal, illiterate, obliterate.

Locus (place); *locatus* (placed): local, locate, dislocate, allow (permit).

Longus (long): longitude, elongate, prolong = purloin, lunge.

Loquor, *locutum* (speak): eloquent, loquacious, colloquy, locution.

Luc (shine); *lumen*, *lumin-is* (light); *luna* (moon): elucidate, luminiferous, illuminate, lunatic.

Machina (engine): machination.

Magnus (great); *magister* (master, i.e., "a greater"); *maximus* (greatest): magnanimous, majority, majesty, magistrate, maxim.

Malus (bad); *male* (ill): malice, malevolent, malignant, malady.

Maneo, *mansum* (remain): permanent, mansion, manor, remnant.

Manus (hand); *mandatum* (entrusted): manual, manacle, emancipate, maintain, manoeuvre, command.

Mare (sea): marine, maritime.

Mater (mother); *materia* (matter): maternity, matricide, materialize.

Membrum (limb): member, mem-brane.

Medius (middle): mediator, imme-diate, medieval, mediocre, means.

Memor (mindful): memory = memoir, remember, commemorate.

Mendum (fault): mend (= amend, for emend), emendation.

Mens, *ment-is* (mind): mental, de-mented, mention.

- Mereo* (earn); *mercor* (purchase); *merx*, *merc-is* (wares): *merces*, *merced-is* (reward:) meritorious, merchant, merchandise, mercenary, mercy, market, mart.
- Mensum* (measured): *mensuration*, *commensurate*, *immense*, *measure*.
- Mergo*, *mersum* (plunge): *merge*, *immerse*, *emergency*, *mersion*.
- Mille* (thousand); *miles*, *milit-is* (soldier): *mile*, *million*, *militate*.
- Minor* (less); *minuo* (lessen); *minister* (servant): *minority*, *diminish*, *diminutive*, *ministry*, *minstrel*.
- Mirror* (wonder): *miracle*, *admirable*.
- Misceo*, *mixtum* (mix): *promiscuous*, *medley*, *miscellany*, *meddle*.
- Mitto*, *missum* (send): *admit*, *missile*, *mission*, *dismiss*, *promise*, *Mass*.
- Modus* (measure): *modest*, *modal*, *model*, *modulate*, *moderate*, *mood*.
- Mola* (mill, meal): *molar*, *emolument*, *immolate*.
- Mollis* (soft): *mollify*, *emollient*.
- Moneo*, *monitum* (warn); *monstrum* (a warning): *monition*, *admonish*, *monument*, *monster*, *demonstrate*.
- Morbus* (disease); *mors*, *mort-is* (death): *morbid*, *mortal*.
- Mordeo*, *morsum* (bite): *mordacity*, *mordant*, *remorse*.
- Mores* (manners): *morals*, *moralist*.
- Moveo*, *motum* (move): *movement*, *motive*, *mobility*, *mob*, *emotion*.
- Multus* (many): *multitude*, *multiply*.
- Munio*, *munitum* (fortify); *munus* (gift); *murus* (wall): *munition*, *remunerate*, *munificent*, *municipal*, *intramural*, *immure*.
- Musa* (a muse): *music*, *museum*.
- Muto*, *mutatum* (change); *mutuus* (exchanging): *mutate*, *commute*, *immutable*, *mutual*.
- Nascor*, *natum* (be born, originally *g-natum*): *nascent*, *native*, *nation*, *natal*, *nature*, *cognate*.
- Navis* (ship); *nauta* (sailor): *naval*, *navigation*, *nautical*, *navy*, *navvy*.
- Necto*, *nexum*: (join) *connect*, *annex*.
- Negatum* (denied): *negative*, *deny*.
- Nervus* (sinew): *nerve*, *enervate*.
- Noceo* (hurt); *noxa* (harm): *innocuous*, *innocent*, *noxious*, *nuisance*.
- Notum* (known); *nota* (mark); *nobilis* (noble); *nomen* (name);—older, *g-notum*, etc.—*note*, *notice*, *notify*, *notion*, *notation*, *notorious*, *ignoble*, *nominal*, *noun*, *ignominious*.
- Novus* (new); *nuntius* (news): *novel*, *innovate*, *novice*, *announce*.
- Nox*, *noct-is* (night): *nocturnal*, *equinox*, *equinoctial*.
- Nudus* (naked): *nude*, *denudation*.
- Numerus* (number): *enumerate*.
- Nutrio* (nourish): *nutriment*, *nutritious*, *nurture*, *nurse*.
- Oculus* (eye): *oculist*, *ocular*.
- Odium* (hatred): *odious*, *annoy* = *ennui*, *noisome*.
- Odor* (scent); *oleo* (smell): *odorous*.
- Omnis* (all): *omnibus*, *omnipotent*.
- Onera* (loads): *onerous*, *exonerate*.
- Opto* (desire); *optimus* (best): *option*, *optative*, *optimist*, *adopt*.
- Oro*, *oratum* (speak, pray); *omen* (sign): *orator*, *adore*, *orison*.
- Os*, *oss-is* (bone): *osseous*, *ossify*.
- Otium* (leisure); *negotium* (business): *otiose*, *negotiate*.
- Ovum* (egg): *oval*, *ovary*, *oviporous*.
- Pactum* (agreement); *pax*, *pac-is* (peace); *pango*, *pactum* (fasten, strike): *pact*, *pacific*, *impinge*.
- Pagus* (village): *pagan*, *peasant*.
- Par* (equal): *parity*, *peer*, *disparage*.
- Paro*, *paratum* (get ready): *compare*, *repair*, *prepare*, *parachute*, *parasol*.
- Pareo* (appear): *apparent*.
- Pario* (bring forth): *parent*, *viper*.
- Pars*, *part-is* (part): *partition*, *party*, *parse*, *particle*, *parcel*, *partner*.
- Pastum* (fed): *pastor*, *pasture*, *repast*.
- Pateo* (be open); *pando*, *pansum* (spread); *passus* (a pace): *patent*, *pass*, *expanse*, *pan*, *pail*.
- Pater* (father); *patria* (fatherland): *paternal*, *patrimony*, *patron*, *patri-cian*, *expatriate*, *repair* (go).
- Patior*, *passum* (suffer): *patient*, *passion*, *compassion*, *passive*.
- Pauper* (poor); *pauci* (few): *pauperism*, *poverty*, *poor*, *paucity*.
- Pectus*, *pector-is* (breast): *pectoral*, *expectorate*, *parapet* (<*par-o*).

- Peculium* (private property); *pecunia* (money): peculation, peculiar, pecuniary.
- Pellis* (skin): pellicle, pelt, pelisse, surplice.
- Pello, pulsus* (drive); *pulso* (beat): impel, dispel, pulse, compulsion.
- Pendeo* (hang); *pendo, pensum* (weigh); *pondera* (weights): depend, spend (<dispend), expense, ponder, pensive, poise.
- Pes, ped-is* (foot): pedal, pedestrian, pedestal, pedicel.
- Peto, petitum* (seek): petition, compete, repeat, appetite, petulant.
- Pictum* (painted); *pigmentum* (pigment): picture, depict, orpiment.
- Pius* (dutiful): impious, piety=pity.
- Placo* (appease); *placeo* (please): implacable, placid, pleasure, plead.
- Planta* (plant, sole): plantation, plantigrade, plantain.
- Planus* (flat): plane, plain, plan, piano, explain.
- Plaudo, plausum* (clap): plaudit, explode, plausible.
- Pleo, pletum* (fill); *plenus* (full); *plebes* (the commons): replete, expletive, accomplish, complement, plenary, plenty; plebeian.
- Plico, plicitum* (fold): implicate, explicit, comply, complex, simplicity.
- Plumbum* (lead): plumb, plumbago, plunge, plummet, plumber.
- Plus, pluris* (more): plural, surplus.
- Pœna* (punishment): *pœnitet* (it repents); *punio* (punish): penalty, penitent, penance, punitive.
- Polio, politum* (polish): polite, interpolate.
- Pono, positum* (place): positive, postpone, deposit, compound.
- Pose* and its compounds, as *expose*, are from *pausa* (a pause) < Gk. *pau-omai* (cease).
- Populus* (people); *publicus* (public): popular, populace, people, publish.
- Porta* (gate, part); *porto* (carry); *portus* (port): portable, porter, porteullis, export, opportune.
- Postulatum* (demanded): postulate.
- Potens* (able); *posse* (be able): potential, impotent, possible.
- Praeda* (booty); *prehendo, prehensum* (seize): prehensile, prison, prey, depredation, apprehend.
- Preces* (prayers): precarious, imprecate, deprecation, pray.
- Premo, pressum* (press): reprimand, pressure, depress, imprint, print.
- Prelium* (price): precious, appreciate, price = praise = prize.
- Primus* (first); *prior* (former); *princeps, princip-is* (chief): prime, primrose, primate, priority, principal, prince.
- Privus* (separate); *privo* (bereave): privilege, privateer, deprive.
- Prope* (near); *proximus* (nearest); *proprius* (one's own): propitious, approximate, proper, approach.
- Pugna* (fight); *pugil* (boxer): pugacious, impugn, pugilist, poniard.
- Pungo, punctum* (pierce): pungent = poignant, puncture, punctual, point.
- Purus* (pure); *purgo* (purge); *puto* (cleanse, think): purify, purgatory, amputate, compute = count.
- Putris* (soft, rotten): putrid, putrefy.
- Quaero, quaesitum* (ask): query, inquire, quest, inquest, exquisite.
- Qualis* (what kind); *quantus* (how much): quality, quantitative.
- Quartus* (fourth); *quatuor* (four); *quadrus* (square): quart, quadrant, quadroon, quarry, quarantine.
- Quassum*, in epds.-*cussum*, (shaken): quash, discuss, percussion.
- Queror* (complain): querulous, querrimonious, quarrel, cry.
- Quintus* (fifth): quintain, quintuple.
- Radius* (ray): radiant, radiate.
- Radix, radic-is* (root): radical, radicle, eradicate, radish.
- Rapio, raptum* (snatch): rapid, rapture, rapacity, ravenous, ravish.
- Rarus* (thin): rarify, rarity.
- Ratus* (reckoned); *ratio, ration-is* (reckoning): rate, ratify, ration = reason, ratiocination.
- Rego* (rule); *rectus* (straight, right); *regula* (a rule); *regno* (rule); *rex, reg-is* (king): regimen, regent, rector, regular, regnant, reign, dress = direct, rule.
- Res* (thing): real, realistic, republic.
- Rete* (net): reticule, retina, retiarey.
- Rideo, risum* (laugh): ridicule, risible.
- Rigeo* (be stiff): rigid, rigor.

Ritus (rite): ritual, ritualist.

Rivus (brook): rival, rivulet, derive.

But *river* <Lat. *ripa* (bank).

Robur (strength): robust, corroborate.

Rodo, rosum (gnaw): rodent, corrode.

Rogo (ask): arrogant, prerogative.

Rota (wheel); *rotundus* (round): rotate, rotundity, roll, rowel, roué.

Rudis (untaught): rude, rudiment, erudite.

Ruga (wrinkle): rugose, corrugate.

Ruptum (broken): rupture, abrupt, bankrupt, rout, route=rut.

Rus, rur-is (country): rustic, rural.

Sacer (sacred): *sanctus* (holy): sacrifice, desecrate, sanction, saint.

Sal (salt): saline, salary, salad, sauce.

Salio, saltum (leap): salient, salmon, assail, assault, insult, resilient.

Salvus (safe); *salus, salut-is* (safety, health): salvation, save, salutary.

Sanguis, sanguin-is (blood): sanguine.

Sanus (sound); *sanitas* (health); *sanatus* (made whole): sane, sanity, sanitary, sanatory.

Sapio (taste, be wise); *sapor* (taste): sapient, savor, insipid, sage.

Satis (enough); *satur* (full): satisfy, satiate, asset, saturate, satire.

Scando, scansum (climb); *scala* (ladder): scan, ascend, descent, scan-sorial, scale, escalade.

Scio (know): science, nescient.

Scribo, scriptum (write): scribe, describe, script, conscript, thrive.

Seco, sectum (cut): secant, segment. But *sect* <Lat. *sequor*.

Sedeo, sessum (sit): sediment, subside, assiduous, sedate, possess.

Semen, semin-is (seed): seminal, seminary, disseminate.

Sentio, sensum (feel): sentient, sentence, scent, dissent, sense.

Septem (seven); *septeni* (seven apiece): septennial, septenary.

Sequor, secutum (follow); *secundus* (following); *socius* (companion): sequel, obsequies, consecutive, sue, suit, suite, second, sociable.

Sero, sertum (set in a row, join): series, sermon, exert, concert.

Servus (slave); *servio* (serve): servile, serf, sergeant, deserve. But *pre-serve* <*servo* (save).

Sidera (stars): sidereal, consider.

Signum (sign): signal, assign, seal.

Similis (like); *simul* (together); *simulo* (pretend): similar, simulate, semblance, dissemble.

Simplex (simple); *singuli* (one by one): simplicity, simplify, single.

Sinus (curve): sinuous, insinuate.

Sol (sun): solar, solstice (*star-e*, stand).

Solidus (firm); *solor* (comfort): solidity, consols, solder, soldier, (*soldum*, pay), solace, console.

Solus (alone): sole, solitude, solo.

Solvere, solum (loosen, pay): solve, solvent, resolve, dissolve, soluble.

Sopor, somnus (sleep): soporific, somnolent, insomnia, somnambulist.

Sono (sound): sonorous, consonant, person=parson, unison, sonnet.

Spargo, sparsum (scatter): sparse, asperse, disperse.

Spatium (space): spacious, expatiate.

Specio, spectrum (look); *species* (appearance); spectator, specimen, specious, despise, respect, spice.

Spero (hope); despair, desperate.

Spiro, spiratum (breathe); *spiritus* (breath): spiracle, aspire, expiration, spiritual, sprite, sprightly.

Splendo (shine): splendor, splendid.

Spolium (spoil): spoliation, despoil.

Spondeo, sponsum (promise); *sponse* (of one's own accord): respond, sponsor, spontaneous, spouse.

Stella (star): stellar, constellation.

Sterno, stratum (throw down, spread): consternation, street, stratify.

Stingo, stinctum (thrust); *stimulus* (goad): distinguish, extinguish, instinct, stimulate.

Sto, sisto (stand); *status* (a standing); *statuo* (set up): station, stable (adj.), establish, contrast, obstacle, distant, extant, substance, exist, state, statue, statute, armistice.

Stringo, strictum (graze, tighten): stringent, strain, strict=strait.

Struo, structum (build): construe, structure, instrument, destroy.

Suadeo, suasum (induce); *suavis* (sweet): persuade, suasion, suave.

Sudo (sweat): exude, sudorific.

Sumo, sumptum (take); *sumptus* (expense): assume, sumptuous.

Superus (upper); *supremus* or *summus* (uppermost): insuperable, supremacy, summit, sum, consummate.
Surgo, surrectum (rise): insurgent, resurrection, source = surge.

Tacitum (silent): tacit, taciturn.

Tango, tactum (touch): tangent, tangible, contingent, contagion, contiguous, tact, taste.

Tego, tectum (cover): integument, detect, protect, toga, tile.

Tempus, tempor-is (time): tempest, temporal, extempore, tense.

Tempero, temperatum (moderate): temper=tamper, intemperate, temperature, temperament, distemper.

Tempo, temptatum (try): tempt=taunt, attempt.

Teneo, tentum (hold): *tendo, tentum*, or *tensum* (stretch): tenant, pertinent, tendency, extent, tenor.

Ter (thrice); *tri-a* (three): ternary, trinity, triangle.

Terminus (end): term, terminate, exterminate, determine.

Tero, tritum (rub, wear away): trite, try, detriment, contrite.

Terra (land): terrestrial, terrace, terrier, inter, tureen=terrene.

Terreo (frighten): terrible, deter.

Testis (witness): testify, detest.

Textum (woven): text, texture, tissue.

Tornus (lathe): turn, tornado.

Torqueo, tortum (twist): torture, torment, contort, torsion, torch.

Torreo, tostum (parch, boil): torrent, torrefy, torrid, toast.

Totus (whole): total, surtout.

Traho, tractum (draw, drag): tract, retract=retreat, trait, train, trail.

Tuber (swelling); *tumeo* (swell): tuberos, tuberele, protuberance, tumid, tumefy, tumulus.

Tueor, tuitum, (behold, guard): intuition, tutor.

Turba (crowd): turbid, disturb, trouble.

Ultra (beyond); *ultimus* (last): ulterior, penult, ultimate, outrage.

Unguo, unctum (anoint): unguent, unction, unctuous, anoint.

Undo (flow); *unda* (wave): undulate, inundate, abound, redundant.

Unus (one): unit, unite, unison.

Utor, usus (use); *utilis* (useful): utility, utensil, abuse, usurer.

Vaco (be unoccupied); *vacuus* (empty): vacant, vacation, evacuate.

Vagor, vagatum (wander): vagabond, vague, vagary, vagrant.

Valeo (be strong): valid, convalesce, prevail, valedictory (*vale*, farewell).

Vanus (empty): vain, vanish, vaunt.

Veho, vectum (carry): vehicle, vehement (carried out of one's mind), inveigh, invective, convex.

Vulsum (torn): convulse.

Velum (veil): revelation, unveil.

Venio, ventum (come): convene, advent, venture, event, venue, covenant.

Venter (belly): ventral, ventricle.

Verbum (word): verbal, verbatim.

Verto, versum (turn); *vertex, vertic-is* (top), advert, versatile, obverse, verse, adversary, divorce.

Verus (true); *verax* (truthful): very, aver, verify, veracity.

Vestis (garment): vest, vestry.

Via (way): devious, convey=convoy.

Video, visum (see): evident, visage, provident, prudent, invidious = envious, vision, visual, visor.

Vilis (cheap); vile, vilify.

Vinco, victum (conquer): convince, invincible, vanquish.

Vir (man); *virtus* (valor): virile, virago (manlike woman) virtue.

Vitium (fault): vice, vitiate.

Vitrum (glass): vitreous, vitriol.

Vivo, victum (live); *vita* (life): vivid, vivacity, revive, victuals, vital.

Voco, vocatum (call); *vox, voc-is* (voice), vocation, invoke, vocal.

Volo (will): voluntary, volunteer,

volition, benevolent, malevolent.

Volo, volatum (fly): volatile.

Volvo, volutum (roll); *volumen* (a roll); voluble, revolve, evolution.

Voro (eat): devour, voracious, -vorous.

Voveo, votum (vow): vote, devote, devout.

Vulgus (the commons): vulgar, divulge, vulgate.

Vulnero (wound): invulnerable.

GREEK.

The following list includes the words from which many scientific terms are derived. Forms frequently occurring in compounds are printed thus: for example, *cali-*, *-logy*; indicating respectively the initial and final elements. The Greek *u*, *ai*, and *oi* have become respectively the English *y*, *æ*, and *œ*.

- Agōgē** (a leading; *agōn* (a contest): synagogue, agony, antagonist.
Adamas, (steel): adamant, diamond.
Adelphos (brother): monadelphic.
Aēr (air): aeronaut, aero-.
Aisthēsis (feeling): aesthetics, anaesthesia.
Akouō (hear): acoustics.
Akros (top): acrogens, acropolis.
Allos (other); *allēla* (each other): *allagē* (change): allopathy, allegory (*agoreuō*, speak); parallel, enallage, parallax.
Anēr, *andr-os* (man): androgynous, andro-.
Anemos (wind): anemone, anemometer.
Angelos (messenger): angel, evangel.
Anthos (flower): anther, perianth.
Anthrōpos (man): anthropology, philanthropy, anthropophage (*phagō*, eat).
Arktos (bear): arctic, antaretic.
Archē (beginning, rule): archaic, archives, anarch, arch-, archi-, archo-.
Arithmos (number): arithmetic.
Astēr, *astron* (star): asterisk, astrology.
Autos (self): autograph, authentic, tautology (*to auto*, the same), auto-.
Baktron (stick): bacterium, bacteriology.
Ballō (throw); *bolē* (a throwing); *diabolus* (accuser): belemnite, hyperbole, metabolism, symbol, emblem, diabolical, devil.
Baros (weight): baryta, barometer.
Biblion (book): bible, bibliography.
Bios (life): biology, symbiotic, bio-.
Blastos (germ): hypoblast, epiblast, blastoderm.
Blasphēmō (speak ill): blaspheme, = blame.
Botanē (plant): botany, botanic.
Brōmos (stench): bromine, bromo-.
Bronchos (windpipe): bronchial, bronchitis.
Chaos, *chasma* (yawning, gulf): chaotic, chasm.
Charaktēr (mark): character.
Charis (thanks); eucharist. But *charity* < [Lat. *caritas* (love)].
Cheir (hand): chirography, surgeon = churgeon (*ergon*, work).
Chilia (ten thousand): kilo-.
Chlōros (pale-green); chlorine, chlorophyll (*phullon*, leaf); chloroplast (*plastos*, formed): chlorosis.
Cholē (bile): choleric, cholera.
Chordē (cord); chord, notochord (*nōton*, back), harpsichord.
Choros (dance and song, originally dancing place): chorus, choral, choir.
Chrīō (anoint): Christ, chrism.
Chrōma, *chrōmat-os* (color): achromatic, chromatophor, chrome.
Chronos (time): chronicle, anachronism, synchronism.
Chulos, *chumos* (juice): chyle, chyme, chemistry, alchemy (Arab. *al*, the).
Daktulos (finger, toe): dactyl, date (fruit), dactylo-.
Daimōn (heaven deity): demoniac, demonology.
Deka (ten): decade, decalogue, deca-.
Dendron (tree): dendro-, dendr-.
Derma (skin): derm, periderm.
Dēmos (people): democrat, demo-.
Diaita (mode of life): diet, dietetics.
Didaktos (taught): didactic.
Dis, *di* (twice); *dicha* in two: di-, dicho-.
Diskos (quoit): disk = desk = dish = dais.
Dogma, *doxa* (opinion, glory): dogmatism, orthodox (*orthos*, right).
Dotos (given); *dosis* (giving): anecdote, antidote, dose.
Draō (*do*) drama: drastic.
Dromos (running): dromedary.
Dunamis (force): dyne, dynamic, dynamo, dynamite.
Echō (have, hold); epoch, hectic.
Eidōs (sight, form); *eidōlon* (image): idolatry (*latreia*, worship), -oid (like).

Eikōn (image): icon, iconoclast.
Eirōn (a dissembler): irony.
Endon (within); *entera* (entrails): endocarp (*carpos*, fruit), endo-, enteric, enteritis.
Ergon (work): energy, metallurgy.
Erēmos (desert): eremite = hermit.
Eruthros (red): erythroblast (*blastos*, germ); erysipelas (*pella*, skin); erythr-, erythro-.
Ethnos (nation); ethnic, ethnology, ethno-.
Etumos (real): etymology.
Eurus (wide): aneurism.
Ēchō (sound): echo, catechist.
Ēos (dawn): eo-(beginning).
Ēthos (custom, moral nature): ethics.
Gamos (marriage): bigamist, polygamy, gamo-.
Gastēr (stomach): gastric, gastritis.
Genesis (origin): genetic, -gen (producing).
Gē (earth): geology, geodesy.
Glōssa (tongue): glossary, glottis.
Glukus (sweet): glucose, glycerine.
Glupho (engrave): glyptic, hieroglyphic (*hieros*, sacred).
Gnōsis (knowledge): gnostic, diagnose, prognostic.
Graphō (write, paint); *gramma* (writing): graphic, grammar, gram.
Gymnos (bare); *gymnazō* (exercise): gymno-, gymnastic, gymnasium.
Gunē, *gunaik-os* (woman): gynaeology, misogynist.
Haima, *haimat-os* (blood): hæmatology, hematite, anaemia, hemo-.
Hairesis (taking): heresy, apnoesis.
Heteros (other): heterogeneous.
Hedra (seat): cathedral, hemihedral.
Hen (one): hyphen, hen-.
Hex (six): hex-, hexagon, hexameter.
Hēlios (sun): heliacal, helio-.
Hēmera (day): ephemeral, ephemerides.
Hieros (sacred): hierarchy.
Histōr (inquirer): history, story.
Holos (whole): holocaust, holo-, hol-.
Homos (same); *homoiōs* (like): homogeneous (*genos*, kind), homily (*ilē*, crowd), homo-, homœo-.
Hōra (season, hour): horoscope.

Horizō (define): horizon, aorist.
Hudor (water): hydrogen, hydro-, dropsy, anhydride.
Ichthus (fish): ichthyology.
Idios (peculiar): idiom, idiot, idiosyncrasy (*crasis*, mixture).
Ion (violet): iodine, iodide.
Isos (equal); isosceles (*skelos*, leg).
Kainos (new): cænozoic, encænia.
Kakos (bad): caechy (*hexis*, state): caecography, caco-.
Kalos (fair): calisthenics, cali-.
Kaluptō, *kruptō* (hide): apocalypse, eucalyptus, crypt, cryptogam.
Katharos (pure): cathartic.
Kaustos (burnt): caustic, ink.
Kentron (centre): eccentric.
Kephālē (head): cephalic, cephalopod.
Kinēō (move); *kinema* (movement): kinetics, kinematics.
Klinō, *klima*, (slope): synclinal, climate, climax (lit. ladder).
Koinos (common): cenobite (*bios*, life), epicene.
Konchē (shell): conch, conchology.
Kosmos (ornament, world): cosmetic, cosmic, cosmo-.
Kōmos (festivity): comic, comedy (*ōdē*, song).
Kōnos (cone): conical, conifer.
Kranion (skull): cranium, megrim.
Kratos (strength, power): autocrat, aristocracy (*aristos*, best), -cracy.
Krisis (judgment); *kritēs* (judge): critic, criterion.
Kruos (frost); *krustallos* (ice): cryoscope, crystal.
Kuanos (dark-blue): cyanogen, hydrocyanic, cyanometer.
Kuklos (wheel): cycle, cyclic.
Kulindō (roll): cylinder.
Kuma (wave): cyme, kymograph.
Kun-os (dog's): cynic.
Kuō (contain); *kustis* (bag); *kutos* (cell): cyst, cyto-.
Legō (choose, say); *lexis* (speech); *logos* (discourse, reason): eclectic, lexicon, dialect, logic, -logy.
Lēpsis (taking): epilepsy, cataleptic, syllable (taking together).
Leipō (leave): ellipsis, eclipse, lipo-.
Leucos (white): leucite, leuco-.

Lithos (stone) ; lithograph, lithotomy,
(*tomē*, cutting), lithia.
Luō (break) : analyze, dialysis.

Mania (madness) : maniac, -mania.
Mathēma (learning) : mathematics,
polymath.

Mega (great) : megalithic, (*lithos*,
stone), megaphone (*phōnē*, voice),
megalo-.

Melan (black) : melanite, melancholy.
Mesos (middle) : mesentery (*ēntera*,
intestines), meso-.

Meteōros (raised high) : meteor.

Metron (measure) : metre, symmetry,
-meter, -metric.

Mēchanē (contrivance) : mechanic,
mechanism.

Mikros (small) ; *meion* (less) : micro-
meter, microbe (*bios*, life), micro-
millimeter, meio-.

Mimos (imitator) : mimic, mimetic.
Misos (hatred) ; misanthrope, mis-
ogamist (*gamos*, marriage).

Mnēmōn, *mnēstos* (mindful) : mne-
monics, amnesty.

Monos (alone) : monad, mono- (one).
Morphē (shape) : morphology, meta-
morphose, pseudomorph (*pseudēs*,
false).

Mus, *mu-os* (muscle) : myalgia (*algos*,
pain) : myology, myo-.

Narkoō (benumb) : narcotic.

Naus (ship) : nausea, nauseate.

Nekros (dead) : necrology, necrosis.

Neos (new) ; nezoic (*zōē*, life), neo-.

Neuron (string, nerve) : neuralgia
(*algos*, pain), neurotic, neuro-.

Nitron (soda) : nitre, nitrous, nitrogen.

Nomos (law) ; *nomē* (pasturage) : an-
tinomian, -nomy ; nomad.

Nosos (disease) : nosology.

Odē (song) : ode, hymnody, melody
(*melos*, part).

Oikos (house) ; *oikeō* (inhabit) :
economy (*nomos* law), œcumenical,
diocese, monœcious.

Onuma (name) : anonymous, syn-
onym, patronymic, metonymy.

Optos (seen) ; *ophthalmos* (eye) :
optician, dioptries, synopsis, oph-
thalmia, ophthalmoscope.

Organon (tool) : organist, organize,
organic, organo-.

Ornis, *ornith-os* (a bird) : ornithology.
Orthos (straight, right) : orthography
(*graphē*, writing), orthoepy (*epos*,
word), ortho-.

Osteon (bone) : osteology, osteitis.

Oxus (sharp) : oxygen, oxymel.

Pais, *paid-os* (child) ; *paideia* (learn-
ing) : pedagogue, pedant, cyclo-
pædia (*kuklos*, circle) ; page (attend-
ant, < *paidion*, a little boy).

Palaios (ancient) : paleontology (*ont-*,
being), paleozoic.

Pan (all) : panorama (*horaō*, see), pan-
theist, panto-, diapason (through
all).

Pathos (suffering, disease) ; sympathy,
pathology, pathetic, homeopathy,
allopathic (*allos*, another).

Pausis (a stopping) : pause, pose,
-pose.

Peira (attempt) : pirate, empirical.

Pente (five) ; *pentēkostos* (fiftieth) :
pentameter, pentagon (*gōnia*,
angle), pentateuch (*teuchos*, tool,
book), pentacle, Pentecost.

Pepsis (digestion) ; *peptos* (digested) :
dyspepsia, peptone, pepsin.

Petalon (leaf) : petal, polypetalous.

Petra (rock) : Peter, petrify, pier
(< *F. pierre*, a stone).

Planētēs (wanderer) : planet.

Plastos (moulded) ; *plasma* (some-
thing moulded) : plaster, proto-
plasm (*prōtos*, first), bioplast.

Pleura (rib) : pleurisy, pleuritic.

Plēgē (blow) ; *plēxis* (stroke) : plague,
apoplexy, hemiplegia.

Plēthos (fulness) ; *polus* (many) ; *pleon*,
(more) ; *polis* (city) : plethora,
pleonasm, poly-, political, police.

Pneuma (wind, spirit) ; *pneumōn*
(lungs) : pneumatic, pneumonia.

Poiēō (make) : poet, poesy, posy.

Pous, *podos* (foot) : polypus, polyp
(*polus*, many), antipodes, pod-.

Pōlēō (sell) : monopoly, bibliopole.

Pompē (procession) : pomp, pompous.

Praktos (done) ; *pragma* (deed) :
practice, practicable, pragmatic.

Presbus (old) : presbyter = priest.

Prōtos (first) : protagonist (*agonistēs*,
actor), prototype, protozoon.

Pseudēs (false) : pseudonym, pseudo.

Psychē (soul) : psychical, psychology.

Ptōma (a falling): symptom, ptomaine.
Pur (fire): pyre, pyrites, pyrometer, pyrotechnics (*technē*, art).
Phagein (eat): oesophagus (*oisō*, I shall bear), hippophagy.
Phaino (show); *phantazo* (display); *phaneros* (evident); *phasis* (appearance): phenomenon, phantasm = phantom, fantasy = fancy, phanerogam, phase, emphasis.
Pharmakon (drug), pharmacy.
Pherō (bear); *phora* (a carrying): metaphor, diaphoretic, phosphorus (*phōs*, light).
Phēmē (speech); *phōnē* (sound): euphemism, phonic, phonograph.
Philos (dear, friend): philanthropy (*anthrōpos*, man), philosopher (*sophia*, wisdom).
Phobos (fear): hydrophobia, Anglo-phobe.
Phōs phōtos (light): photograph, photometer, photosphere.
Phrasis (speech): phrase, paraphrase.
Phrēn (midriff, mind): phrenic, phrenetic = frantic, frenzy.
Phusis (nature); *phuton* (plant): physics, physiology.
Rheō, *rheuma* (flow); *rhuthmos* (measured motion): catarrh; rheostat (*statos*, standing), rheo-; rheum, rheumatism, rhythm.
Rhētor (orator): rhetoric.
Rhīs, *rhīn-os* (nose); rhinoceros (*keras*, horn), rhino-.
Rhīza (root): rhizome, licorice (*glukus*, sweet).
Sark-os (of flesh); sarcasm, sarcophagus (*phagein*, eat), sarcoma, sarco-.
Saura (lizard): saurian, sauro-.
Schēma (form); *scholē* (leisure); scheme, school, scholastic.
Schizō (split); schism, schedule (or <Lat. *scindo*, split).
Sītos (food): parasite, sitology.
Skandalon (stumbling block): scandal, slander.
Skēnē (tent, back-scene): scene, scenery.
Skeptikos (reflective); *skopē* (look): sceptical, scope, -scope, episcopal, bishop (< *episkopos*, overseer).
Sophos (wise): sophist, philosopher.
Spaō (draw); spasm, spasmodic.

Sperma, *sporos* (seed): sperm, spore, sporadic.
Sphaira (ball): atmosphere (*atmos*, vapor).
Sphuzō (throb): asphyxia, sphygmo-.
Statos (made stand); *stasis* (standing); *sthenos* (strength): statics, apostate, ecstasy, system, asthenia, calisthenics; histology (*histos*, web).
Stolē, *stolos* (what is sent, equipment), stole, apostle, epistle, apostolic.
Stenos (narrow); stenography.
Stereos (firm): stereotype, stereoscope (*skoepo*, look).
Stoma, *Stomat-os* (mouth); *stomachos* (mouth, gullet): stomach, stoma, stomato-, stomo-.
Stichos (line): distich, acrostic (*akros*, beginning).
Stratos (army): strategy, stratagem.
Strophē (turning): strophic, apostrophe, catastrophe.
Taphos (tomb): epitaph, cenotaph.
Taxis (arrangement); *taktos* (arranged): syntax, -taxy, tactical.
Tēle (far): telegraph, telephone, tele-.
Tomē (a cutting); *tomos* (section): anatomy, dichotomy, tome, atom, entomology (*en-tomon*, insect).
Tonos (tone, stretching): tonic, tune, intone, peritoneum, peritonitis.
Topos (place): topic, topography, utopia (< *ou*, not, "nowhere").
Toxicon (poison): toxin, intoxicate.
Typos (blow, impress): type, typify, tympanum, timbrel, timbre.
Tyrannos (despot): tyrant, tyrannous.
Thea (sight); *theōros* (spectator): theatre, theory, theodolite.
Theos (God): theist, theology.
Therapeuō (heal): therapeutics.
Thermos (hot): thermometer, isotherm (*isos*, equal), thermal, thermo-.
Thesis (placing); *thema* (something laid down); *thēkē* (case, chest): theme, parenthesis, apothecary, treasure (*thesauros*, treasure).
Zēlos (ardor): zealous = jealous.
Zōnē (belt): zone, zonule, zonar.
Zōon (animal): zoology, zoophyte, (*phuton*, a plant), zodiac (*zodion*, little animal).
Zymē (leaven): zymotic.

XIX. EXERCISES.

PART I.

ON THE TEXT.

Grammatical exercises are of two kinds: *analysis* (Gr. *analysis*, "a loosening back") and *parsing* (which literally means telling the parts of speech [Lat. *pars*]). In the cases of a compound, complex, or compound-complex sentence, analysis consists in dividing it into its clauses, and then dividing each clause into its essential and complementary parts; showing their relations and describing the functions of the conjunctive elements. The simple sentence is treated like the clause.

Continued further, analysis shades into parsing, which embraces a complete account of each word or phrase-form. This account includes stating:

(1). The *kind*, or *class*, of the word—the part of speech, and the class and sub-class thereof to which it may belong;

(2). Its *form*—its inflection, and whether simple, derivative, or compound; but, as the latter often assumes an advanced state of knowledge, it is usually omitted;

(3). Its *construction*, or *syntax* (112).

It must be remembered that there are few difficulties connected with the ordinary parsing of an English word except those that concern its *kind* and especially its *construction*. Very often, it is sufficient to confine the parsing to these two points. In writing out such exercises, any intelligible abbreviation may be used. In analysis and parsing it is convenient to deal with the different particulars in a certain order; but, owing to the variety of the syntactical relations, a set form of expression would often be inapplicable. Wherever an irregularity or an exceptional form occurs, it should be described concisely in suitable language.

II. THE SENTENCE AND ITS COMPONENTS.

CLASSES OF WORDS. §§ 16-31.

I. *Classify each word in the following:*

1. Grace was in all her steps. 2. Roused at the sound, from lowly bed a captive feebly raised his head. 3. Oh! then and there was hurrying to and fro. 4. With weeping and with laughter still is the story told. 5. Soft and pale is the moonbeam; moveless still is the grassy stream. 6. Pale grew thy cheek and cold. 7. What art can wash her guilt away? 8. Here, to the

houseless child of want, my door is open still. 9. Lightly and brightly breaks away the morning from her mantle gray. 10. Around, in sympathetic mirth, its tricks the kitten tries. 11. No more to chiefs and ladies bright, the harp of Tara swells. 12. In thy right hand lead with thee the mountain nymph, sweet Liberty.

DIFFERENT VALUES OF THE SAME WORD. § 32.

II. Classify the italicized words in the following:

1. *Home* they brought her warrior dead. 2. *Farthest* from him is best. 3. *Hard* by a spreading lime-tree stood. 4. The *many* rend the skies with loud applause. 5. The paths of glory lead *but* to the grave. 6. *None* but the *brave* deserves the fair. 7. In Venice *but's* a traitor. 8. *Thank* me no *thankings*, and *proud* me no *prouds*. 9. *Past* hope I have lived, for my noon-day is *past*. 10. The cardinal is not my *better* in the field. 11. If thou *thou'st* him *some* *thrice*, it shall not be *amiss*. 12. *Certain* were there who swore the *truth* of this. 13. *If* me no *if's* and *but* me no *but's*. 14. *Heavens!* how *unlike* their Belgic sires of *yore*! 15. Mark you his absolute *shall*? 16. "*No! no!*" says *aye*, and "*Twice away,*" says *stay*. 17. *Him* is the objective case of *he*. 18. *Ill* fares the land, to hastening *ills* a prey.

PECULIAR WORDS, NOTIONAL AND RELATIONAL WORDS, PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

§§ 33-37.

III. Classify the phrases¹ and select the noun, adjective, and adverb clauses, in the following:

Make a list of ten relational and ten notional words, and classify the italicized words:

1. *There* is a shocking levity in some natures, *which* leads them to sport with awful and hallowed things. 2. *To expect* men, *holding* such opinions, *to have* consideration for the prejudices of others is to expect the impossible. 3. I endeavored to form some arrangement in *my* mind of the objects I had been contemplating. 4. On *hearing* from his friend, he decided to go *there* by way of New York. 5. He is a good-for-nothing, and always begins *trifling* as soon as his employer is out of sight. 6. He *that* observeth the wind shall not sow. 7. *When* the fit was on him, I did mark *how* he did shake. 8. We cannot perceive *that* the study of grammar makes the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society. 9. You *all* did see that, on the Lupercal, I thrice presented him a kingly crown, which he did thrice refuse.

¹ The term phrase includes such an expression as the italicized part of "He is guilty of what you say"; for, although the object of the preposition *of* is a noun clause, the phrase does not consist of a subject and a predicate (36).

III. CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

MODEL OF SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

The Duke of Bedford conceives that he is obliged to call the attention of the House to his Majesty's grant to me; for he considers it as excessive and out of all bounds.

An assertive compound-complex sentence, containing three clauses.

(1). The Duke of Bedford conceives—

Prin. assert.; incomplete.¹

(2). —(that) he is obliged to call the attention of the House to his Majesty's grant to me ;²—

Subord. to (1); noun, object of *conceives*; *that*, the connective.³

(3). —(for) he considers it as excessive and out of all bounds.

Prin. assert.; in causal (or, illative) co-ordination with the complex clause (1) and (2); *for*, the connective (427).

¹ When a clause is grammatically incomplete, the fact should be stated. Connections may also be shown by the use of dashes.

² To save space and time when a clause is a long one and there is no risk of confusion, the first and the last few words will be sufficient: thus, "That he is obliged . . . grant to me."

³ All connectives—whether co-ordinating or subordinating—show the logical relation of the clauses they connect.

When pure connectives, they merely show the logical relation of the thoughts (40 and 43): this value may be represented in analysis by placing them (as *that* above) with their clause, in parenthesis.

But when they partake also of the nature of one or more other parts of speech (33 [1, 2, 3]), they also form part of the grammatical structure of the clause: this value may be represented by placing them with their clause but not in parenthesis.

In the case of subordinate clauses, the connective is the sign of the subordination; so that, while it may not form a grammatical part of its clause, it is the means by which we show the grammatical value of the clause in the larger sentence. In such a sentence, for example, as, "I came after he left," the adverb is *after he left*, not simply *he left*, although when we come to analyze the clause we deal simply with the constituents of the sentence (16); that is, the subject and the predicate. See also par. 46.

I. Classify the following sentences and analyze into clauses, according to the foregoing scheme, those sentences that are not simple:

1. He that gathereth in summer is a wise son; but he that sleepeth in harvest is a son that causeth shame. 2. Ill fared it then with Roderick Dhu, that on the ground his targe he threw. 3. He had left the room; he cannot have done the deed. 4. What does it matter how he acts? 5. I know not what the future hath of marvel or surprise. 6. I will not ask why thou canst not understand that thou art left forever alone. 7. And distant warblings lessen on my ear, that lost in long futurity expire. 8. He works hard that he may go to college. 9. Whilst I was yet looking down upon these gravestones, I was roused by the sound of the abbey clock. 10. As I paced the cloisters, my eye was attracted by three figures, rudely carved in relief. 11. When he first entered he seemed greatly perturbed; and, though he strove to recover his equanimity, he did not for some minutes succeed. 12. Thus far shalt thou go and no further. 13. Oh, what a joy it were, in vigorous health to have a body! 14. What need we fear who knows it? 15. So Heaven decrees; with Heaven who can contest? 16. Peace? What can tears avail? 17. Lives there anyone who loves his pain? 18. Shall I go, or will you? 19. Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it: why hast thou made me thus? 20. The tissue of the life to be we weave into colors all our own, and in the field of destiny we reap as we have sown. 21. They leave us the dangers—which how long will you bear? 22. Reap we not the ripened wheat, till yonder hosts are flying. 23. Let us go round, and let the sail be slack, the course be slow. 24. Let the waters under the

heaven be gathered together. 25. The bridegroom cometh; go ye out to meet him. 26. To solemn feast I will invite him—where be thou present. 27. Green be the turf above thee! 28. How happy he looks!

Practice in classifying the sounds of the language may be found in any of the other exercises. At first, however, only the more important classes of sounds should be dealt with.

In the analysis of words, abundant practice can be had in applying the principles which cause change of form. After most of the Latin and Greek root-words, in the lists in Section XVIII., are cited, as examples, words which may be used for the same purpose.

V. WORD FORMATION.

MODEL OF WORD-ANALYSIS.

irresistible = *ir* + *resist* + *ible* = "that can be (*-ible*) not (*ir-*) resisted";

And at a later stage, thus:

irresistible = *ir* + *re* + *sist* + *ible* = "that can be (*-ible*) not (*ir-*) with (*re-*) stood (*-sist*)."

After some practice in the preceding schemes, the following will be sufficient:

enable = *en* + *able* = "to make able."

countless = *count* + *less* = "without count."

translate = *trans* + *late* = "to carry across," that is, "to carry thoughts from one language into another."

impervious = *im* + *per* + *vi* + *ous* = "having no way through it."

In working the following exercises, consult the lists of prefixes, suffixes, and root-words.

BY SUFFIX. §§ 77-83.

I. *Analyze the following into primitives and suffixes, and show how the suffixes affect the meaning:*

healthiness, drainage, trembling, sailors, European, courteous, godhead, rookery, maidenhood, artist, kindred, responsibility, darling, stealth.

II. *From the following primitives form by suffixes as many derivatives as possible, giving in each case the force of the addition:*

law, sweet, gold, brass, saint, Canada, friend, winter, water, break, lamb, wed, stream, hate, count, jewel, hill, game, eat, rose, black, nun.

BY PREFIX. § 84.

III. *Separate each of the following into primitive and prefix, and show how the prefix affects the meaning:*

discontent, encourage, unmarried, impotent, extraordinary, withstand, propose, oppress, undress, unbelief, mishap, prolong, denude.

IV. *From the following primitives form by prefixes as many derivatives as possible, giving in each case the force of the additions:*

patience, turn, shore, bid, lay, trust, ever, run, manly, do, hold, bitter, siege, cover, bear, date, worker, ease, danger, human, midst.

WITHOUT CHANGE OF FORM. §§ 85-86.

V. *Name the part of speech to which each of the following words usually belongs, and construct sentences to show that it may be transferred to another class without alteration in form:*

warm, notion, post, book, provision, preface, fear, notice, minister.

COMPOSITION. §§ 87-88.

VI. *Translate into phrases, as in § 88, the following compounds, writing as temporary compounds those that should be so written:*

sheepdog, seacoast, deafmute, merchanttailor, wolfdog, shepherd, pathway, forgetmenot, bedridden, thunder-riven, bloodshed, fieldmouse, lifetime, grasshopper, mainspring, headstrong, footway, hard-gotten.

VII. *Express by a compound each of the following phrases:*

as high as one's breast, a man who acts as servant, a woman who begs, a shaking of the ground, one who kills a man, a fish that lives in the sea, one who goes to church, a high estimation of one's self, a place where one may have something to eat, as dark as coal, looking like death, tearing the heart.

VIII. *Analyze the following, giving the force of the root-words, prefixes, and suffixes:*

- (1). prolonged, confronting, immeasurably, ruthlessly, grievousness, longer, belied, civilization, forbearance, brotherhoods, recollection, northern, inestimable, displeasure, refreshment.
- (2). reflect, prosperous, sensible, recipient, prospective, secluded, suppression, independence, acquirements, educational, mechanical, apostrophe.

IX. *Form as many words as possible from each of the following primitives by the addition of prefixes, or of suffixes, or of both; state how each addition affects the meaning:*

hot, fresh, absent, real, dear, gentle, dark, high, wild, notice, able, mountain, nature, speak, man, earth.

X. *Translate into a derivative each of the following phrases:*

(1). To lead in a wrong direction, not clean, one who drinks greatly, a king's realm, a condition of servitude, one who writes, the condition of a child, to make new again, the race of man, the quality of being wild, one who bears testimony, made of lead, of the nature of a child, somewhat green, not possessing teeth, to daze often, to stray often.

(2). That cannot be counted, to make great, pertaining to the sun, the act of looking under, belonging to the country, the act of joining together, feeling for others, given to visions, the rule of the people, the rule of the rich, the rule of the best, the rule of the few, one's life written by one's self, one who lives in a place.

INFLECTION. §§ 94-105.

XIV. *Give and name all the inflected forms of the following, stating the effect of the inflection :*

abbot, fox, ox, brother, fish, great, I, thou, he, she, it, this, that, who, which, other, be, slowly.

XV. *Name, with explanations, the governing and the agreeing words in the following :*

1. I saw him and his father. 2. Thou seest the boy's books ; she sees his sister's. 3. If this be so I shall leave. 4. For conscience' sake.

~~42~~ Other exercises in inflection may be found throughout the book,

VI. SYNTAX OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

MODELS OF SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

I.

Ardent and intrepid on the battlefield, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute.

Monmouth

ardent battlefield

was

effeminate and irresolute

everywhere else

I. Bare subject.

II. Modifier.

III. Verb.

IV. Subjective complement.

V. Adverbial modifier.

As there is no predication in either the interrogative or the imperative sentence (48), it is better, in a general scheme, to use the term "verb" for III., and it is simpler to include under this term both the simple verb and the verb-phrase. So far as the assertive sentence is concerned, the "verb" might be called the bare predicate (18).

II.

Having been a good boy all his life, he had never given his parents any unnecessary anxiety, notwithstanding his lively disposition.

he

having been life

had given

his parents anxiety

never

notwithstanding disposition

I. Bare subject.

II. Modifier.

III. Verb.

IV. Objects.

} V. Adverbial modifiers.

Here II., being logically equivalent to "as he had been, etc.," is also an adverbial modifier of the predicate (373 [5]); and, in an exhaustive analysis, this should be added under either II. or V.

Both IV. and V. are adverbial (148), but it has long been usual to distinguish them. Sometimes, however, the indirect object is described as an adverbial modifier; and the objective predicate (131 and 132), as

an *objective* complement. But the discrimination amongst objects is more easily made in parsing, which, as we have seen (p. 353), is only continued analysis. When a verb is passive, a retained object (128) is still to be valued as an object, and the objective predicate of the active becomes the subjective complement of the passive (133)

III.

Like swans upon the water, lie the yachts, with folded wings, dreaming beneath a cloudless sky of long delaying gales.

(The meaning of the sentence is that the yachts lie like swans upon the water, with folded wings; and, in this condition, they [the yachts only] dream of long delaying gales.)

yachts

the

lie

like swans . . . water }

with folded wings }

dreaming gales

I. Bare Subject.

II. Modifier.

III. Verb.

IV. Adverbial Modifiers.

V. Subjective Complement.

Here V. is also adv. to the modified predicate, and appositive, not being so closely connected with it in sense as the ordinary subjective modifier (138). This also should be stated in an exhaustive analysis.

CAUTIONS.

(1). The subject sometimes has immediately attached to it a complement which also modifies the predicate logically (as in Model II. above), and sometimes (as in Model III.), the predicate has immediately attached to it a complement which also modifies the subject logically; the chief relationship in each case being determined by the general sense and especially by the position of the modifiers.

(2). For general purposes, the following scheme may be adopted for analysis. It must be remembered, however, that there are many syntactical peculiarities that need special description. In the earlier stages of grammatical study, some of the more subtle logical distinctions may be omitted. Placing the descriptive part of the scheme at the right hand side secures sufficient space for any special comments:

Bare subject; *Modifiers* (of bare subject); *Verb*; *Subjective complements* (of verb); *Adverbial modifiers* (of verb).

The term "complement" may be properly applied to all the elements that *complete* the bare subject or the bare predicate (or the verb); but, in analysis, it is usual to restrict the term to the expressions that complete verbs of incomplete predication.

(3). A clause should, of course, be analyzed like the simple sentence, with a statement added of its relationship to the rest of the sentence, whether shown by a connective or not. We have already seen (on p. 355)

how to analyze a sentence into its clauses, and the two schemes combined will give a complete analysis. See also scheme on pp. 374-375

(4). An interjectional element is no part of the sentence, but it is proper, in analyzing a passage, to describe any interjectional expression it may contain.

In the following exercises explain the syntax in accordance with the subject as dealt with under the paragraphs referred to :

✎ Some of the sentences may also be used for analysis.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE VERB. §§ 115-118.

I. 1. Nearly one half of the inhabitants were assembled. 2. The army of the queen mean to besiege us. 3. Havoc and spoil and ruin are my gain. 4. The world has all its eyes on Cato's son. 5. But, by the yellow Tiber, was tumult and affright. 6. Thine are honest tears. 7. And I, behold, I establish my covenant with you. 8. He was a wonderful man, that uncle of yours. 9. Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me. 10. Two-thirds of this is mine by right. 11. The tramp of horses, the blast of a trumpet, were heard. 12. The epic as well as the drama is divided into tragedy and comedy. 13. Nor man nor fiend has fallen so far. 14. Seriousness and zeal in religion is natural to the English. 15. My purse, my coffer, and myself is thine. 16. So doth the prince of hell and his adherents. 17. Peace and esteem is all that age can hope for. 18. Why is dust and ashes proud? 19. None of the inmates is in the house. 20. There are a great number of inhabitants.

II. *Supply suitable predicates for the following, using the present or the past tense of be, and assigning reasons for the agreement :*

1. Either John or James. 2. Either you or I. 3. John or you. 4. He, as well as you. 5. You, and not he. 6. More than a little. 7. More than five. 8. Nothing but ease and comfort. 9. Not you, but Mary. 10. John or James or their sisters. 11. More than he. 12. The hue and cry. 13. Fifty cents. 14. "Thompson's Seasons." 15. The horse and buggy. 16. Bread and water. 17. Twice two. 18. Six and five.

PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE. §§ 119-123.

III. ✎ 1. All looks yellow to the jaundiced eye. 2. A dress suit becomes a man. 3. The time turns torment, when folly turns man's head. 4. With him lay dead both hope and pride. 5. As you are here, you may sit quiet here. 6. The nail stuck fast. 7. A French king was brought prisoner to London. 8. Now is the winter of our discontent, made glorious summer by this sun of York. 9. She makes a good heroine. 10. She stood silent. 11. The fog came pouring in. 12. My silence will sit drooping. 13. My wedding bell rings merry in my ear. ✎ 14. The dog ran yelping to meet me. 15. It froze hard last night.

OBJECTIVES OF THE VERB. §§ 124-133.

IV. 1. I'll leave my son my virtuous deeds behind. 2. He wrought the castle much annoy. 3. I mean you no harm. 4. He gives his parents no tremulous anxiety. 5. Ask me no questions, and I'll tell you no fibs. 6. Grant me still a friend in my retreat, whom I may whisper, "Solitude is sweet"! 7. The gale had sighed itself to rest. 8. He prayed a prayer that

it would last him a year. 9. He has had his hat on. 10. Cradles rock us nearer to the tomb. 11. Perseverance keeps honor bright. 12. All men think all men mortal but themselves. 13. He hides his own offences and strips others bare. 14. A man's best things lie close about his feet. 15. He promises to make an able statesman. 16. Sooner shall they drink the ocean dry. 17. I must not see thee Osman's bride. 18. He ran the gauntlet, and the streets ran rivers of blood. 19. She was picked up dead. 20. It rained blessings upon his head. 21. He was thought foolish. 22. He was seen with his feet on the stove.

V. *Change, where possible, the construction of the sentences in IV. from the active to the passive conjugation, and vice versa.*

ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS. §§ 134-140.

VI. 1. Without the assistance of these works a revolution took place—a revolution productive of much good and much evil; tremendous but short-lived evil; dearly purchased but durable good. 2. Ardent and intrepid on the field of battle, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute. 3. I found the urchin Cupid affectionate. 4. On him, their second Providence, they hung. 5. Sister Livy is married to farmer Williams. 6. They sang Darius, good and great, by too severe a fate, fallen from his high estate, and weltering in his blood. 7. Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East. 8. They all, with one consent, began to make excuse. 9. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. 10. The fiend lies stretched out, huge in length. 11. How came you thus estranged?

POSSESSIVE CASE. §§ 141-143.

VII. 1. Thou art freedom's now, and fame's. 2. That is madam Lucy, my master's mistress's maid. 3. The lieutenant's last day's march is over. 4. Five times outlawed had he been, by England's king and Scotland's queen. 5. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now. 6. Shall Rome stand under one man's awe? 7. His beard was of several days' growth. 8. Do not call Silvia Alexander's. 9. The blind old man of Seio's rocky isle. 10. Letters came last night to a dear friend of the good duke of York's. 11. John's house is near James's. 12. He gave John James's. 13. This book, the teacher's, is not the principal's also. 14. He is at a friend's.

VIII. *Express, where possible, the meaning of the following by using the possessive case, assigning reasons in each case, and giving the value of the possessive when used:*

1. This crown belongs to the Queen of England. 2. This farm belongs to John, Peter, and Richard. 3. The overcoats of the working men were stolen. 4. I have had an intercourse of six years with him. 5. The day of judgment. 6. The power of truth. 7. The estates of John, Peter, and Richard are for sale. 8. We admire the genius of Scott, the novelist. 9. The son of the sister of the wife of Silas. 10. Reilly sells shoes for misses and ladies. 11. For the sake of righteousness. 12. A reward of ten dollars is offered. 13. I had the worth of my money. 14. In spite of the opposition of such a man as Jones. 15. The day of the Lord. 16. The isle of Iceland. 17. The bent of his mind. 18. The theft by my son. 19. The loss of my son. 20. The events of the morning. 21. A picture belonging to my son. 22. A picture of my son.

ADVERBIAL COMPLEMENTS; ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION. §§ 144-150.

IX. 1. The mighty wreck lay right athwart the stream. 2. Here was the chair of state, having directly over it a rich canopy. 3. He is above, sir, changing his dress. 4. His father left him well off. 5. Use a little wine for thine often infirmities. 6. Cowards die many times before their deaths. 7. Thus have I been twenty years in thy house. 8. The rest must perish, their great leader slain. 9. Five times every year he was to be exposed in the pillory. 10. Seamen, with the self-same gale, will several different courses sail. 11. From morn till noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve, a summer's day. 12. The last impossible, he fears the first. 13. Each in his narrow cell forever laid, the rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep. 14. He left my side, a summer bloom on his fair cheeks, a smile parting his innocent lips. 15. Raw in-fields, the rude militia swarms; mouths without hands, maintained at vast expense, in peace a charge, in war a weak defence; stout, once a month they march, a blustering band, and ever, but in times of need, at hand.

PREPOSITIONS. §§ 151-154.

X. 1. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among, leaps the live thunder. 2. Why to frenzy fly for refuge from the blessings we possess? 3. All the triumphs of truth and genius over prejudice and power, in every country and in every age, have been the triumphs of Athens. 4. We ne'er can reach the inward man, or inward woman, from without. 5. The time 'twixt six and now must by us both be spent most precious. 6. Shriller shrieks now mingling come from within the plundered dome. 7. Till then, in blood, my noble Percy lie. 8. Other ways exist besides through me.

GENERAL EXERCISE. §§ 115-155.

1. The horse has broken loose. 2. O'er our heads the weeping willow streamed its branches, arching like a fountain shower. 3. Under the cool shade of a sycamore, I thought to close mine eyes some half an hour. 4. He wished me well. 5. You played me false. 6. The murderer made away with his victim. 7. He refused me point blank. 8. Thou'lt take cold shortly. 9. I cry you mercy. 10. The maiden breathed her last. 11. I would fain live. 12. He drank a glass too much. 13. He played fast and loose. 14. For hours now wind and rain have ceased. 15. I met him the day before. 16. What a dance you have led him! 17. No veil she needed, virtue proof. 18. He came five minutes or so before the time. 19. It is all over with us. 20. Make haste back. 21. She led him a sorry life of it. 22. They were hand and glove together. 23. The prisoner pleaded guilty. 24. He ate his father out of house and home. 25. It will last my time. 26. He fell full length on the floor. 27. The children sat the play out. 28. And the imperial vot'ress passed on, in maiden meditation, fancy free. 29. They marched out five and five. 30. He limped shoeless across the street. 31. Given health, he meant to do his duty. 32. He is all heart and soul. 33. He went out raving. 34. He got rid of his troubles. 35. He walked his best. 36. Give me some more pudding. 37. Have done saying so. 38. Her face flushed crimson. 39. He was picked up alive. 40. He took his soup hot. 41. The hat doesn't become you, although you have become its owner. 42. James proved his statement; so James's proved a mistake. 43. How vile an idol proves this god! 44. He was soon reputed the best sport in the

country. 45. Oh, that thou had'st been my guide! 46. He is a king every inch of him! 47. Alas, my country! 48. Ye mariners of England that guard our native seas! 49. O for a glimpse of love! 50. Year in and year out, he does the same.

VII. VERBS.

DERIVED VERBAL FORMS. §§ 187-194, 226.

I. Parse the infinitives, gerunds, and participles in the following:

1. I did it upon pain of losing my life. 2. He contemplated marrying Mary. 3. Seeing is believing. 4. We do not talk for talking's sake. 5. The dreaded hour has come. 6. The gray-eyed morn smiles on the frowning night. 7. I have much work to do. 8. Be swift to hear and slow to speak. 9. Youth and pleasure meet to chase the glowing hours with flying feet. 10. Not to know argues yourselves unknown. 11. He is teaching drawing. 12. He prepared a chariot to take me to battle. 13. Studying geometry improves the reasoning faculties. 14. This is the most amusing way of living. 15. The harvest has been long past. 16. Can'st thou minister to a mind diseased? 17. Suffering is not always owing to sin. 18. Not having met him lately, I do not remember having seen him in that dress. 19. Ever since your coming yesterday, the desire has been growing on me to tell you something known to no living being but myself. 20. I knew her but to love her. 21. The horse galloped, going down the street. 22. He disliked to have his room kept swarming with flies. 23. By the pricking of my thumbs, something wicked this way comes.

TENSE AND MOOD FORMS. §§ 157-186, 195-234.

CAUTIONS.

The Old verbs *can*, *ought*, and *must* are always notional and independent, and may be in either the indicative or the subjunctive. *Do*, *did*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *may* and *might* are either notional or auxiliary.

The following are examples of the notional uses (the root infinitive which follows such verbs is valued as the object in analysis, [206]).

Indicative: He *can* go (= "is able to go"); He *could* go (= "was able to go"); Thou *shalt* not steal (= "art forbidden to steal"); You *should* not steal (= "ought not to steal"); He *will* do it (= "is determined to do it"); He *would* not do it (= "was determined not to do it"), when he *might* have done so (= "was at liberty to have done so"); He *may* go (= "is at liberty to go").

Subjunctive: I wish he *could* go (= "were able to go"); You *might* see him (= "It would be possible for you to see him"), if you *tried* (= "were to try"); I told him he *might* go (= "would be at liberty to go"), if he *wished* (= "should wish"); If he *did* it (= "were to do it"), he *might* fail (= "there would be a possibility of his failing").

As the examples show, when a simple form of a notional verb is in the subjunctive, a phrasal subjunctive form may be substituted for it: we thus have a test for such forms.

The uses of the indicative and subjunctive auxiliaries have been taken up fully under the verb. In some cases there is a difficulty in deciding whether the forms are auxiliary or notional : thus, for example, in

I hope he may get it,

may might seem to be a subjunctive auxiliary. It is, however, notional and indicative; we express a hope about the possibility of his getting it; not a hope about his getting it, viewed as a possibility. The meaning is "I hope there is a possibility of his getting it."

II. Parse the verbs in the following sentences :

1. The mellow year is hasting to its close; the little birds have almost sung their last. 2. Rarely did the wrongs of individuals come to the knowledge of the public. 3. She gave me of the tree and I did eat. 4. Wherefore plucked ye not the tree of life? 5. With such a prize no mortal must be blessed. 6. When I shall have brought them into the land, then will the turn to other gods. 7. No man can do these miracles except God be with him. 8. Men were grown impatient of reproof. 9. The Piets were never heard of in history after these great defeats. 10. Some criminal is being tried for murder. 11. It is an impulse of humanity to he and she inanimate objects. 12. He as much as said he would go. 13. My father says I may go to walk with him. 14. Oh, that I might be delivered from the body of this death. 15. She asked that she might be allowed to take the examination. 16. Beware lest something should grow up in you which would cause your failure. 17. She hoped she might be concealed. 18. The Lord judge between thee and me. 19. I would I were a glove upon that hand. 20. Not what we would but what we must, makes up the sum of living. 21. Morning and night he would weep. 22. The philosopher, being asked why he would not have an abode suitable to his dignity, said that he should think himself suited if he might see his narrow house filled with loving friends.¹ 23. Who would fill a coward's grave? 24. Mine enemy's dog though he had bitten me should have stood that night against my fire. 25. Might I speak my mind? 26. John could not come; if he should come, he will find me here. 27. Fair would I, if I might, have speech with yonder pair. 28. Even if he was in fault, they said he had been punished too much. 29. If chance will have me king, chance may crown me. 30. Ah, that thou could'st know thy joy, ere it passes, barefoot boy! 31. They talked of the time when each should have a hawk of his own. 32. The letter came to Jessie as she was setting out for the park, where she knew she should meet her friend.² 33. The tones swelled to such harmonies, that though I was wide awake, I might have believed had gone to heaven. 34. I knew she would not reveal my secret.³ 35. How can you wonder that he should be impatient? 36. O my king, God save me king, whatever me befall; I would not be without his care, for houses, lands, and all.

¹ To settle the mood of the verb-forms in such a sentence, see first what the actual words of the speaker were.

² 215. ³ What would be the subordinate clause if *knew* were turned into *know*?

III. Explain the values of *shall*, *will*, *should* and *would* in the following

He. I shall go to town to-morrow. Of course you will?

She. No, thanks. I shall wait for better weather, if that will ever come. When shall we have three fair days together again?

He. You should go. I should like to have you hear the opera. Besides, our friends would be glad to see us.

She. No, no; I will not go.

He. [*to himself.*] But you shall go. [*to her.*] Well, remember, if you should change your mind, I shall be very happy to have your company. Do come; you would enjoy the opera; and you shall have the nicest possible supper afterwards. Now, won't you? Remember I said I should go.

She. No; I should not enjoy the opera; and I wouldn't walk to the end of the drive for the best supper you will ever give me. You seem to think I would do anything for something good to eat.

He. Most human creatures will. Well, if you will stay at home, you shall. But my trip would be dull without you. I should be bored to death—that is, unless, indeed, your friend, Mrs. Dashatt Mann should go, as she said she thought she would.

She. [*to herself.*] My dear friend Mrs. Dashatt Mann! She shall find that I am mistress of the situation. [*to him.*] John, why should you waste yourself upon those ugly, giggling girls?

He. O, think what I will about that, I must take them; and indeed it wouldn't be quite proper to take her alone—would it? What should you say?

She. It doesn't matter much, I should say. But it's too bad you should be bored with her nieces—and since you will have me go with you—and—and—after all I should like to hear the opera—and—you shan't be going about with those cackling girls—well, John, dear, I'll go.

VIII. NOUNS.

GENDER. §§ 240-244.

I. *Give the other gender-nouns corresponding to the following:*

mankind, sire, roe, merman, peer, votary, arbiter, neuter, porter, bride, witch, hero, heritor, buck, colt, hart, rake, sloven.

NUMBER. §§ 248-259.

II. *Pluralize, when possible, the following, stating the principle involved:*

bamboo, embryo, bureau, guy, money, soliloquy, Salmagundi, Livy, Pythagoras, cupola, apostrophe, simile, calico, cargo, echo, buffalo, hero, wo, solo, Nero, Hercules, Carolina, Sicily, houri, America, Miss Bell, Lady Rossmore, president-elect, ex-mayor, lord-mayor, belief, fief, oaf, hocf, calif, distaff, foster-child, half-penny, hanger-on, pianoforte, habeas corpus, ignis fatuus, louis d'or, tête-à-tête, council, saliva, scoria, dogma, decorum, laudanum, datum, magus, surplus, metropolis, basis, virtue, billet-doux, index, stamen, and, two, fourth, +, phenomenon, 5, die; Peter, the hermit.

III. *Discuss the following formations, with respect to number; and supply a suitable predicate for each, using some part of be:*

assets, goggles, hustings, statics, firearms, regalia, belles-lettres, cloves, fetters, fireworks, premises, amends, oats, woollens, remains, gentry, jury, grouse, bellows, vermin, fry, news, shambles, means, manners, pike, pains, pease, pence, vespers, yeomanry, twelve-month, sulks, brace, Indies.

CASE. §§ 260-273.

IV. *Name and explain the different noun cases and case-forms in the following:*

1. The servant brought his master a horse.
2. John struck James a blow.
3. The master taught the boys grammar.
4. He asked the man a question.
5. Envy no man his honors.
6. Happy is the bride the sun shines on.
7. Meat and matins hinder no man's journey.
8. He did his master's work for righteousness' sake.
9. Reproof never does a wise man harm.
10. So ended the day's sorrows.
11. Look, look, Richard.

V. *Write, with explanations thereof, the possessive cases, singular and plural, of*

mother, man, John, righteousness, woman, Xerxes, sheep, fish, Moses, rose, people, tree, King of Rome, what-do-you-call-him.

VI. *Discuss any case peculiarities in the following:*

1. To his dead master Edward's royal memory.
2. Forgiveness of the queen, my sister's wrongs.
3. The Psalms are David's, the king, the priest, and prophet of the Jewish people.
4. In wonder-works of God and Nature's hand.
5. After a fortnight or three weeks' possession.
6. For honour's, pride's, religion's, virtue's sake.
7. The sage's and the poet's theme.
8. Is this a poem of Kipling's or is it Moore's?

NOUNS AND NOUN-PHRASES. §§ 274-278.

VII. *Parse the nouns and noun-phrases in the following:*

1. I have bought five yoke of oxen.
2. I will make thee a great nation.
3. In this place ran Cassius' dagger through.
4. Some so-called geniuses have little genius.
5. His brother pirate's hand he wrung.
6. Thy songs were made for the pure and free.
7. O night and darkness! ye are wondrous strong.
8. From gold to gray, our wild sweet day of Indian summer fades too soon.
9. So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not to those fresh morning drops upon the rose.
10. Jove but laughs at lovers' perjury.
11. He fears being thought foolish.
12. To be thus is nothing.
13. In the evening is the best time.
14. He came from over the sea.
15. After being out so much, he had no time to try again.
16. This is a book of John's: it isn't Mary's: James's is the one we use.
17. Don't imagine you can come the old soldier over me.

NOUN-CLAUSES. § 279.

VIII. *Analyze the following sentences:*

1. What reason weaves, by passion is undone.¹
2. Who cheapens life abates the fear of death.
3. The triumph of my soul is that I am.²
4. That there should have been such a likeness is not strange.
5. You have heard if I fought bravely.
6. I never was what is popularly called superstitious.
7. They made a bargain that they would never forsake each other.
8. You said nothing of how I might be dungeoned for a mad man.
9. I have sinned in that I betrayed the innocent blood.
10. I am not so certain that these much-decried children have been dunces.
11. I don't care a jot whether you are a prince.
12. It is to you, good people, that I speak.
13. I feared lest it might anger thee.
14. Bid her be judge whether Bassanio had not once a

love. 15. Howe'er deserved her doom might be, her treachery was faith to me. 16. I am sorry he is absent. 17. Just mark him, with what stealth he creeps. 18. The statement that there are corrupt men in both parties is only too true. 19. There is no fear that he will deny it. 20. Each man among them held his breath. Would he see them and give the alarm before he could be stricken dead?

^{1 2} The subordinate clauses in sentences 1 and 3 are peculiar. In 1, the subject, an essential element, is a noun clause; and, in 3, the subjective complement, an essential part of the predicate, is a noun-clause. To analyze such sentences, classify the sentence as a whole, and then describe separately the subordinate clause. See also p. 375

DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION. §§ 281-284.

IX. *In the following convert the direct narration into indirect, and the indirect into direct:*

1. "What is this strange outcry?" cried the philosopher; "I sent the women away that they might not offend in this way; for I have heard that a man should live in peace. Have they not gone? Surely you have not allowed them to remain! I shall be greatly vexed if you have. Oh! they are gone, are they? I should like to hear your views. Let me have them, then, in full detail. You ought to gratify me. You shall do so, at any rate, whether you will or not."

2. When he reached home, his father asked him where his ship was and what had become of his cargo. The son, in reply, told him what had happened—how he had given up his vessel with its contents, and had taken in exchange the slaves and set them free; and how he had consented to take the girl back with him and make her his wife. He then asked his father if he was satisfied and would give them his blessing.

IX. PRONOUNS.

§§ 286-330.

I. *Parse the pronouns in the following:*

1. Jura answers through her misty shroud, back to the joyous Alps who call to her aloud. 2. To him it mattered little which of the two parties triumphed. 3. These are propositions of whose truth no one knows. 4. I that speak to thee am he. 5. The that that that man used should have been which. 6. What does it matter what he did, or whose it is? 7. Certain were there who swore to the truth of this. 8. He is the same as he has ever been. 9. Few shall part where many meet. 10. By others' faults wise men correct their own. 11. Some are happy while others are miserable. 12. They took hold of one another's hands. 13. The many rend the skies with loud applause. 14. None but the brave deserves the fair. 15. Neither has anything he calls secure. 16. In this 'tis God directs, in that 'tis man. 17. There is no vice so simple but assumes some mark of virtue in his outward parts. 18. 'Tis Providence secures in every change both myself and yourself. 19. Whatever you do, don't do that: what is done cannot be undone. 20. I still had hopes, my latest hours to crown, amidst these humble bowers to lay me down. 21. Where yet my boys are and that fatal she, their mother. 22. O, then, how blind to all that truth requires, who think it freedom when a part aspires! 23. It is time to go. 24. It had rained all month. 25. Folly that both makes friends and keeps them so. 26. We speak that we do know.

27. He knew not which was which. 28. It is all one to me. 29. Whoe'er I woo, myself would be his wife. 30. It dawns: will it never be day? 31. We march in person to the war. 32. It was at Jerusalem, and it was winter. 33. Now call me the chief of the harem guard. 34. Merry elves their morrice pacing, trip it deft and merrily. 35. That is so, the world over. 36. The power which you brought here has made you Cæsar's not the king's. 37. I was taken to a new toy of his and the squire's. 38. My son is either married or going to be so. 39. What with one thing and what with another, I am nearly mad. 40. His suit wore him a year.

X. ADJECTIVES.

In describing the functions of the adjective and the adverb, the general term "modify" has been used (22). In parsing, however, both of these parts of speech, the kind of modification should be stated—whether the modifier limits, or describes, or qualifies (23-24), with its logical value, when the adjective or the adverb is not simply a limiting one (372-373, 407).

ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PHRASES. §§ 332-370.

I. Parse the adjectives in the following sentences:

1. Her mother seemed the younger of the two, but she was the most suitable member of the family. 2. I promise thee the fairest wife in Greece. 3. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew tree's shade, the rude fore-fathers of the hamlet sleep. 4. The gorgeous East, with richest hand, showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold. 5. Very few people are the best economists of their fortune. 6. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels. 7. God, in the nature of each being, founds its proper bliss. 8. Such a man will win any woman. 9. A hundred winters snowed upon his breast. 10. Every third word is a lie. 11. Ayr, gurgling, kissed his pebbled shore, o'erhung with wild woods, thickening, green; the fragrant birch and hawthorn hoar twined amorous round the raptured scene. 12. A little learning is a dangerous thing. 13. Unto the pure all things are pure. 14. With lower, second, and third stories, shalt thou make it. 15. My father gave me honour, yours¹ gave land. 16. The lady is dead upon mine and my master's false accusation. 17. There will a worse come in his place. 18. He returned next day, less himself than ever. 19. The dog lay stretched out full length, with an I've-been-there-before look in his face.

¹ *Yours* is here an adjective used as a noun (368 [1]) the subject of *gave*. Similarly, in "Give me *yours*," *yours* is the object of *give*; and, in "My book is not *yours*," *my* is an attributive, and *yours* a predicate adjective.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES. §§ 371-373.

II. Analyze the following sentences:

1. I tell you that which you yourselves do know. 2. I know a bank where-on the wild thyme blows. 3. The reason why the seven stars are only seven is a very pretty reason. 4. His praise is lost who stays till all commend. 5. For those that fly may fight again, which he can never do that's slain. 6. What hand but would a garland cull for thee who art so beautiful? 7. The next time that Mr. Thornhill came to see us, my girls took care to be out of the way. 8. My own dim life should teach me this, that life should live for

ever more. 9. Whoever wakes in England sees some morning unaware that the lowest boughs and brushwood leaves round the elm tree bole are in tiny leaf. 10. Is there any reason why you cannot come? 11. He hath the means whereby he may accomplish it. 12. He felt that wrong with wrong partakes, that nothing stands alone, that whoso gives the motive makes his brother's sin his own. 13. Granted that he did prove faithful in that one instance, there is no reason why we should trust him again

XI. ADVERBS.

ADVERBS AND ADVERB-PHRASES. §§ 374-397.

I. Parse the adverbs and adverb-phrases in the following:

1. Is she not passing fair? 2. Believe me yours truly. 3. Full fathoms five my father lies. 4. Honor pricks me on. Yea, but how if honor prick me off when I come on? How then? Can honor set to a leg? No. 5. This was all excellent good. 6. I hear the far-off curfew bell. 7. Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home. 8. A tear at least is due to the unhappy. 9. The swan on still St. Mary's lake floats double, swan and shadow. 10. Let it go bang at the window. 11. Peradventure there shall be twenty found there. 12. I, even I only, am left. 13. Over these, shrill sang the sea wind. 14. Nowadays men wander about a-nights and seldom arise betimes in the morn. 15. A stream ran voiceless by, still deadened more. 16. He was a good man, to be sure, and mayhap we shall have none other like him. 17. The torrid clime smote on him sore besides. 18. 'Tis marvellous good wine, abbot, though it possibly may be a trifle strong. 19. Life went a-maying with Nature, Hope, and Poesy, when I was young! When I was young? Ah woful when! Ah! for the change 'twixt Now and Then. 20. Those empty orbs from whence he tore his eyes. 21. Now and then he was to be seen astride of his horse. 22. I go with you, heart and soul. 23. He is like his father, but he walks like his brother. 24. There being no one there, what need we any spur for our cause. 25. The news bids fair, doubtless, to pass current. 26. The book, greatly to my disappointment, is not to be found anywhere in the house.

ADVERB-CLAUSES. §§ 398-407.

II. Analyze the following sentences.

1. Wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. 2. When I was young, I thought of nothing else but pleasures. 3. 'Tis full two months since I did see him last. 4. Now that their distress was over, they forgot that he had returned to them. 5. There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended, but has one vacant chair. 6. His misery was such that none of the bystanders could refrain from weeping. 7. Ye know the heart of a stranger, seeing ye were strangers in the land of Egypt. 8. That is strange, considering he is your next neighbor. 9. The pains are no sooner over than they are forgotten. 10. So Mahomet and the mountain meet, it is no matter which moves to the other. 11. Scarce had he mounted, ere the Pappenheimers broke through the lines. 12. Although the wound soon healed again, yet, as he ran, he yelled for pain. 13. I would not spare him even if he should scorn me. 14. If I could have found a way, I had not started practice. 15. If you had known the virtue of the ring, you would not then have parted with the ring. 16. Though Birnam wood be come to

Dunsinane, yet I will try the last. 17. If he were honester, he were much goodlier. 18. Though men may bicker with the things they love, they would not make them laughable. 19. Though all things foul would wear the brows of grace, yet grace must still look so. 20. If you did know to whom I gave the ring, you would abate the strength of your displeasure. 21. Were he here, yes, standing before me, I would hear him. 22. I do not think, where'er thou art, that thou hadst forgotten me. 23. Angela gives promise she will do whatever he shall wish, betide her weal or woe. 24. I will go provided you remain where you are. 25. I will do it, war or no. 26. A time there was, ere England's griefs began, when every rood of ground sustained its man. 27. I love not man the less, but Nature more, from these our interviews, in which I steal from all I may be, or have been before. 28. I don't like to trouble you, only I know you'll forgive me. 29. I cannot run the risk of being the only one, as once happened before. 30. As it was, he missed the mark. 31. The king is mad, as is well-known to the Count.

GENERAL EXERCISES.

I. *Analyze the following sentences:*

1. If the people of Canada were disposed to agree with Mr. Dingley after his own fashion, he would speedily discover, that while we buy largely from the U. S. because it is convenient and profitable, a very small tariff obstruction would turn the trade into other channels. 2. In all the place there was not a groan, a word of complaint, save now and then an ejaculation of impatience lest the fighting should be over before they should have a chance. 3. Paul was very anxious. In a few days his case would be called; and should the verdict be against him, he knew he must submit. To appeal to a higher court would mean the selling of the farm, and what could he then do for his family?¹ 4. I determined to keep him with us, that we might both be saved, as might please God. 5. If you are asking me if you may rely on my regarding anything you may say to me as strictly private and confidential, my answer is that you may. 6. I know not what happened after, save that I found myself upon my own bed, with my purse clasped in both my hands. I had been mortally afraid some one would snatch it from me. 7. We shall be sorry to lose you; but, if it should come about, I could give you some letters that might be useful to you. They could do you no harm. 8. On the few occasions when the family had gone to London, it was to stay with my aunt, who was an unmarried sister of my mother's.

¹ 215.

II. *Distinguish the meanings of the following:*

1. It is time he went; It is time he was going; It is time he were going; It is time he should go. 2. I will go if he comes; I shall go if he come; I should go if he came; I would go if he came; I should go if he were to come. 3. I said he would go; I said he should go; I said he might go. 4. I am surprised that he was there; I am surprised that he should be there. 5. Should you think it likely? Would you think it likely? 6. He acts as I shall; He acts as I will; He acts as I should; He acts as I would. 7. Did I think so, I should speak; Were I to think so, I should speak; If I thought so, I would speak; Had I thought so, I would speak; Had I thought so, I would have spoken. 8. She wondered what it all meant. She wondered what it

all might mean. 9. He has a dollar more than I; He has a dollar, more than I. 10. He is a better orator than logician; He is a better orator than a logician. 11. Such an action is wrong; To act so is wrong; That one should act so is wrong. 12. He spoke to his son who was there; He spoke to his son, who was there. 13. How odd that it is true! How odd that it should be true! 14. James and John were not there; Neither James nor John was there. 15. Cato, the wise, was present; The wise Cato was present. 16. Now I think you will go; Now, I think you will go. 17. The British cabinet disagree; The British cabinet disagrees. 18. My morning work; my morning's work. 19. He thought little about it; He thought a little about it. 20. He is going at a great rate; He is going it at a great rate. 21. What fool is there? What a fool is there?

Exercises on the conjunctions, prepositions, and interjections may be found throughout the book.

XV. INFINITIVES, GERUNDS, AND PARTICIPLES.

INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS. §§ 438-452.

I. Parse the infinitives, gerunds, and verbal nouns in the following:

1. Oh, it is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant. 2. The toil of dropping buckets into empty wells and growing old in drawing nothing up. 3. I can see that Mrs. Grant is anxious for her not finding Mansfield dull as winter comes on. 4. I don't wonder at people's giving him to me as a lover. 5. The king's persisting in such designs was the height of folly. 6. He lies with not a friend to close his eyes. 7. He used to read; he is not accustomed to speak. 8. We often had the stranger visit us to taste our gooseberry wine. 9. I might command you to be slain. 10. The Lord God had not caused it to rain on the earth. 11. He is anxious for us to remain. 12. There's no greater luxury in the world than being read to sleep. 13. He is wrong to think so. 14. He went on to tell his wrongs. 15. I am surprised to hear him say so. 16. He is not the man I took him to be, to act thus. 17. Where were your wits, to make this mistake? 18. He grieves to see you in distress. 19. That is where I live, tell me where you live. 20. To look at him, you would not think so. 21. Oh! I would be the turtle dove she cherishes with care, to rest upon her shoulder, and touch her glinting hair. 22. She is not to blame for being silly.¹

¹ Parse *being silly* as a gerund phrase (157 and 464).

PARTICIPLES. §§ 452-463.

II. Parse the participles in the following:

1. The neighbors, hearing what was going forward, came flocking about us. 2. The melting Phœbe stood wringing her hands. 3. I found her straying in the park. 4. In other hands I have known it triumphed in and boasted of with reason. 5. I'll have thee hanged to feed the crow. 6. They set him free without his ransom paid. 7. With my minstrel brethren fled, my jealousy of song is dead. 8. Having found myself suddenly deprived of the pleasures of the town, I began to grow dispirited. 9. Her voice is truth, told by music; there are jingling instruments of falsehood. 10. Things are lost in the glare of day, which I would have the sleeping see. 11. He could not have been

impressed with her, to have forgotten her so soon. 12. The French, having been dispersed in a gale, had put back to Toulon. 13. That arose from the fear of my cousin hearing these matters. 14. Granted that men continuing as they are, there must be war; what then? 15. It is too soon for the news to have reached him. 16. The hour concealed and so remote the fear, death still draws nearer, never seeming near. 17. They gave him knowledge of his wife's being there. 18. She loves to sit up late, either reading or being read to. 19. Their being neighbors, only made it more embarrassing to play the host. 20. Don't stay wasting my time. 21. He is too long winded to be effective. 22. He began cutting bread and butter, and went on doing so. 23. He took advantage of my absence to lock the doors. 24. Vice is a monster of so frightful mien, as, to be hated, needs but to be seen. 25. Two army corps crossed safe, myself among them. 26. A rabbi is a very ordinary person in Jerusalem, there being three hundred of them there.

XVI. IRREGULAR EXPRESSION.

ABBREVIATION AND OTHER CAUSES OF IRREGULARITY. §§ 465-496.

I. *Complete the abbreviated sentences in the following, and discuss any other grammatical peculiarities:*

1. Ruin from man is most concealed when near. 2. Why am I beaten?—Dost thou not know?—Nothing, sir, but that I am beaten.—Shall I tell why?—Ay, sir, and wherefore. 3. He looked as though the speed of thought were in his limbs. 4. Worse than that, he fell sick. 5. Come, you at least were twenty when you married; that makes you forty. 6. And what if I call my servants and give thee in charge? 7. O for that warning voice, which he who saw the Apocalypse heard cry in Heaven aloud! 8. Really, he did it, more because he values criticism than because he values the author. 9. No matter who went, he would go day after day. 10. There are more reasons than the mere interpretation of the treaty why the Canadian view should be insisted on. 11. It helped to throw him into a more than usually excited state. 12. It wouldn't do to leave out the furze bush; and there's nothing prettier to my thinking, when it's yellow with flowers. 13. The blest¹ to-day is as completely so as who began a thousand years ago. 14. He told me that wisdom is better than wealth, as if I had not known that before. 15. Oh, but she will love him truly! 16. Don't imagine but that he has found his best. 17. One hardly knows whether to speak to him or not. 18. And yet here, as long and as broad as they are, these glaciers are but six streams in six hundred. 19. Work as he may, he will fail. 20. Much as I should like to go, I will stay here. 21. As for me, I defer to Tully as to a learned man. 22. No one, so far as I am aware, said so. 23. Will you be so good as to take the will for the deed? You know it is as good as done. 24. They did so, not that they thought me worth a ransom, but that they were not safe when I was there. 25. He has gone I know not whither. 26. There is more than a possible danger. 27. They are, sad to say, all dead. 28. To my astonishment he is more than satisfied. 29. To think that he should have been so unfortunate! 30. Distraction! if the earth could swallow me! 31. As sure as can be, here he comes. 32. I must speak to him, and that as soon as possible. 33. For all that you tried so hard, you have failed. 34. Surely he is no other than my long expected friend. 35. Talking of ghosts, I expect to see my grandmother's to-night. 36. He is as methodical

as man can be, says the chaplain, adding that his eye is as good as when he commenced his career nearly half a century ago, and that he works more hours than any other man in the prison. 36. Sooner than allow yourself to be killed, take this sword and defend yourself. 37. As good dissemble that thou never meant'st, as first mean truth and then dissemble it. 38. He did not know what course to take; he was so much put out. 39. It is not because he bids me that I go. 40. Have you taken cold? 41. He married her some years ago—as true a love match as has ever taken place. 42. Oh! and was he in good health? 43. He has hidden himself, the rascal! 44. What are you driving at, Sir, if I may make so bold? 45. He went mad. The horse went galloping. He went, running at full speed.

¹ 274 (2).

GENERAL EXERCISE.

II. *Explain, where possible, the causes of the irregularities in the following; and, where the irregularity is not now allowable, give the present regular form and the reason for making the correction:*

1. Those kind of apples don't suit me.¹ 2. Neither precept nor principle are so forcible as habit. 3. She is older than me. 4. I am a plain, blunt man, that love my friend. 5. This measure gained the king as well as the people's approbation. 6. James is the strongest of the two boys. 7. Let thou and I the latter try. 8. He has not done nothing wrong to-day. 9. Every one must judge of their own feelings. 10. He I must punish, but she I will forgive. 11. No one was to blame but I. 12. Classics are important. 13. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade. 14. He walks like I do. 15. Did you expect to have heard such a speech? 16. Neither will he do this nor that. 17. The water has bursted the hogshead. 18. I never have nor never will forget it. 19. Bertrand is—I dare not name it! 20. This book is yourn or hisn, I can't say which. 21. But now my lingering feet revenge denies. 22. What sort of a man is he? 23. The iron and wooden bridge are both impassable. 24. Let a gallows be made of fifty cubits high. 25. Her seemed she scarce had been a day one of God's choristers. 26. Him I accuse the city ports by this hath entered. 27. His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds of the sky. 28. Hesaw a certain vessel descending unto him, as it had been a cloud. 29. As good kill a man as kill a good book. 30. The combatants being kin half stints their strife before they do begin. 31. Well hath thou acquit thee. 32. Good gentlemen, look fresh and merrily. 33. Of all men else have I avoided thee. 34. Than whom there is none greater. 35. This youth, howe'er distressed, appears he has good ancestors. 36. Where such as thou mayest find him. 37. You hear the learned Bellario what he writes. 38. O monstrous beast, how like a swine he lies! 39. And it came to pass about an eight days after these sayings. 40. Anger is like a full hot horse, who, being allowed his way, self-mettle tires him. 41. He lived—such living as it was!—in a log-cabin. 42. Did he not fear the Lord and besought the Lord, and the Lord repented him of the evil which he had pronounced against him? 43. They at her coming sprung, and, touched by her fair tendance, gladlier grew. 44. Except—the which I see not—some way of escape may be found, etc.

¹ See Kellner's *Historical Outlines*, pp. 11-12.

EXERCISES.

PART II.

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

In a complicated piece of analysis, the clauses should be written out in the order in which they are met with in the passage, and one should be dealt with at a time.

MODEL OF SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

The Thompsons, who were by no means anxious to leave home, put off wrestling with the problem as long as they could, hoping, perhaps, that something would turn up to solve it for them; but, when nothing happened and the thermometer kept rising, the day had finally come when the question had to be faced and settled, no matter how reluctant they might be.

An assertive compound-complex sentence containing nine clauses.

(1). The Thompsons put off wrestling with the problem as long —, hoping,¹ perhaps,—

Principal assertive; incomplete.

(2). —who were by no means anxious to leave home,—

Descriptive adj. to *Thompsons*; in causal co-ordination with (1); *who*, the connective.²

(3). —as³ they could (put it off)—

Abbreviated; subord. to (1); adv. of degree to *long*, correlative to *as*; *as*, the connective.

(4). —(that) something would turn up to solve it for them;—

Subord. to (1); noun, obj. of *hoping*; *that*, the connective.

(5). —(but) the day had finally come—

Prin. assert., incomplete; with its complements, in adverbs. co-ord. with the complex clause (1)—(4); *but*, the connective.

(6). —when nothing happened—

Subord. to (5); adv. of cause to *had come*; *when*, the connective.

(7). —(and) when the thermometer kept rising,⁴—

Subord. to (5); co-ord. with (6); *when* (understood) and *and*, the connectives.

(8). —when the question had . . . they might be.

Subord. to (5); adj. to *day*; *when*, the connective.

(9). —how reluctant they might be.

Subordinate; quasi-subj. in *no matter* . . . *might be*, an absolute adv. phrase of concession.⁵

¹ = "because they hoped" 373 (5). ² 372 (4). ³ *As* is an adv. conj. (398 [3]), like the *where*-series (421): so, too, *the*, when conjunctive (361). ⁴ 486. ⁵ 461, 462.

Clause (2) gives the reason for the statement in (1), being logically equivalent to "for they were by no means, etc." (427). This clause is, therefore, logically principal, assertive, though not of the usual grammatical type; but it is unnecessary to state so in the scheme, for this is implied in the description there given of the clause.

The quasi-subject part of the absolute phrase in clause (8) is subordinate, because it is a noun; for a subordinate clause owes its subordination to its function, not to its so-called dependence on a principal clause.

EXTRACTS.

1. The effect of this disinclination on the part of the public towards the artificers of their pleasures, when they attempt to enlarge their means of amusing, may¹ be seen in the censures usually passed by vulgar criticism upon actors or artists who venture to change the character of their efforts, that, in so doing, they may² enlarge the scale of their art.

¹ Notional. ² 220.

2. I presume there is little danger of the missionary¹ in North Formosa being asked what² a railroad or steamboat is like; for³ the people are all acquainted with them, although in South Formosa a railroad is still unknown.

¹ 460. ² 320. ³ 427.

3. The poor boy at the village school has taken comfort as he has read that the time was when Daniel Webster, whose father told him he should¹ go to College if he had to sell every acre of his farm to pay the expenses, laid his head upon the shoulder of that fond and discerning parent, and wept the thanks² he could not speak.

¹ 215. ² 125 (2).

4. Traddles never said who¹ the real offender was, though he smarted for it next day and was imprisoned so many hours that² he came forth with a whole church-yardful of skeletons swarming³ over his Latin dictionary.

¹ 320. ² Adv. conj.: in such constrs., *that* has replaced an older *as*. ³ 418.

5. When I told the captain of my discovery, he stamped and swore, vowing¹ that no shore-going lubber should² ever again enter a ship that belonged to him; but presently he calmed down, for it certainly was in pure ignorance that the poor fellow had risked his own life.

¹ 138. ² 215.

6. As the Palmer, lighted by a domestic with a torch, passed through the intricate combination of apartments of this large and irregular mansion, the cupbearer, coming behind him, whispered in his ear, that, if he had no objection to a cup of good mead in his apartment, there were many domestics in that family who would¹ gladly hear the news he had brought from the Holy Land, especially that which concerned the Knight of Ivanhoe.

¹ What were the whispered words?

7. The moon had risen behind the ramparts, shining¹ on the snow-covered roofs of the town beneath, where, on a cold December evening, a friar, with his dark rope-girdled gown wrapped² closely round him, climbed the steep frozen causeway leading up to the shoulder of the rock to the castle gate.³

¹ 138. ² 418. ³ 372 (3).

8. Sir A. struck the new key-note, when he took the broad ground that the one thing that was necessary was the power to look after their own interests;¹ for, if they were once given that, they could be trusted to emancipate themselves from minor evils.

¹ 279 (5).

9. When I first entered upon the world of waters, and lost sight of land, I looked round about me with pleasing terror, and, thinking¹ my soul enlarged by the boundless prospects, imagined that I could gaze round without satiety; but, in a short time, I grew weary of looking on barren uniformity, when I could only see again what I had already seen.

¹ 373 (5).

10. As I have heard it said by men practised in public address, that hearers are never so much fatigued as¹ by the endeavour to follow a speaker who gives them no clue to his purpose, I will take the slight mask off at once, and tell you plainly that I want to speak to you about books; and about the way we read them, and could, or should read them.

¹ 477 (3).

11. On the fifteenth of October, 1894, a captain in the French army was arrested, charged¹ with the crime of betraying military secrets. Had he been guilty, the affair would never have aroused much comment, and Dreyfus would have died on Devil's Island, forgotten² by the world. From the day, however, when his arrest came upon him like a bolt out of a clear sky, through the long five years, he has shown not only that he is an innocent man, but that his courage and determination are almost unparalleled.

¹ 138. ² 138.

12. His Honor is not to receive to-day, being advised¹ that, though² greatly improved and continuing to improve, he has not yet recovered so completely that it would be safe for him to endure the fatigue to which a public function might expose him.³

¹ 273 (5). ² 477 (3). ³ What were the actual words of the advice?

13. Only a sense of one's self-importance prompts one to keep silence when opportunity presents itself for saying pleasant things; for silence in such cases means simply this—it would make you conceited to know¹ my real opinion of yourself, your acts, or your belongings, and so² for your sake I shall keep it to myself.

¹ 400. ² 42.

14. I am always very well pleased with a country Sunday, and think, if keeping holy the seventh day were only a human institution, it would be the best method that could have been thought of¹ for the polishing and civilizing of mankind.

¹ 232.

15. Until after the circus had arrived, it was the intention of the manager to camp near the Exhibition Grounds at the corner of Dufferin and King Streets, and the show had been advertised accordingly. But when the advance-guard of the organization arrived on the ground, they found that they could

hardly drive a tent peg into the soil,¹ so hard was it. A change of location was, accordingly, necessary, and the baseball grounds over the Don were considered to be the best available.²

¹ 46. ² 447, 449.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 16. All are architects of Fate,
Working in these walls of Time;
Some with massive deeds and great, ¹
Some with ornaments of rhyme. | For ² the structure that we raise,
Time is with materials filled;
Our to-days and yesterdays [build.
Are the blocks with which we |
| Nothing useless is, or low;
Each thing in its place is best;
And what seems but idle show | Truly shape and fashion these;
Leave no yawning gaps between;
Think not, because no man sees, |
| Strengthens and supports the rest. | Such things will remain unseen. |

¹ 150. ² 424, 427.

17. The man who will go into a cotton mill, and contemplate it from the great water-wheel that gives the first movement, (and still more from the steam engine, should that be the moving power,) who will observe the parts of the machinery, and the various processes of the fabric, till he reaches the hydraulic press with which it is made into a ball, and the canal or railroad by which it is sent to market, may find every branch of trade, and every department of science, literally crossed,¹ intertwined, interwoven with every other, like the woof and the warp of the article manufactured.

¹ 132.

18. The farmers grew impatient, but a few
Confessed their error and would¹ not complain;
For after all, the best thing one can do
When it² is raining, is to let it rain.
Then they repealed the law, although they knew
It would not call the dead to life again;
As schoolboys, finding their mistake too late,
Draw a wet sponge across the accusing slate.

That year in Killingworth the autumn came
Without the light of his majestic look,
The wonder of the falling tongues of flame,
The illumined pages of his Doom's-Day book.
A few lost leaves blushed crimson³ with their shame,
And drowned themselves despairing⁴ in the brook,
While the wild wind went moaning⁵ everywhere,
Lamenting⁶ the dead children of the air.

¹ Notional. ² 160, 299 (3). ³ 119. ⁴ 138. ⁵ 122. ⁶ 138, 373 (4).

19. If we could¹ know when soft replies,
And smiling lips, and tranquil eyes
Hide hearts that tremble, throb, and ache,
As silently they grieve and break,
Beneath their mask of graceful lies,
We might not deem ourselves so wise
To measure² grief by tears and sighs;
Some hasty judgments might not make,
But spare, for hidden sorrow's sake,
Our friend behind the gay disguise.

¹ Notional, subjunctive. ² 446.

If we could know, how in the mines
 Of tenderness the pure gold shines,
 We might not feel the smarting stings
 The longed-for message often brings,
 From heart that round our own entwines;
 We'd read, between the formal lines
 And careless words, unerring signs
 Of love that onward, upward springs
 To meet its own on steadfast wings,
 And commune hold on sacred shrines.

20. The savage tone in which this was whispered, perhaps completed the confusion of the Marquis's nerves, for he stumbled as he made to horse; and, though he recovered his feet, sprang to the saddle with his usual agility, and displayed his address in horsemanship as he assumed his position opposite to the challenger's, yet the accident did not escape those who were on the watch for omens which might predict the fate of the day.

21. As had been arranged between us,¹ my ship let go her anchor in the harbor between the island and the bridge by which the city is entered on that side, while the other galleys stood out some distance in the bay. Sending² a messenger ashore, I made known the errand on which we had come, and after waiting a long time, received answer that the Lord Deputy was not yet come³ to Perth, but Sir W. would see⁴ his Grace and would give a safe conduct to her and her guard.

¹ 407. ² 457. ³ 217. ⁴ 215.

22. What may follow your course of obstinacy, if persisted in, I cannot take upon me to predict, nor do I wish to conjecture; but this I know full well, that, as sure as man is mortal, and to err is human, justice deferred enhances the price at which you must expect safety and peace; nor can you expect to gather in another crop than they did¹ who went before you, if you persevere in their utterly abominable husbandry of sowing injustice and reaping rebellion.

¹ 475.

23. There is no flock, however watched and tended,
 But¹ one dead lamb is there!

There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
 But² has one vacant chair.

The air is full of farewells to the dying,
 And mournings for the dead;
 The heart of Rachel, for her children crying,
 Will not be comforted?

Let us be patient? These severe afflictions
 Not³ from the ground arise,
 But⁴ oftentimes celestial benedictions
 Assume this dark disguise.

We see but⁵ dimly through the mists and vapors;
 Amid these earthly damps,
 What seem to us but sad funereal tapers
 May be heaven's distant lamps.

¹, ², ⁴, ⁵. Contrast these *but*'s. ³ 392,

24. Answer'd Fitz-James,¹—"And,² if I sought,
 Think'st thou no other could be brought?
 What deem ye of thy path waylaid?³
 My life given o'er to ambuscade?—
 "As of a meed to rashness due:
 Hadst thou sent warning fair and true,—
 I seek my hound, or falcon stray'd,
 I seek, good faith,⁴ a Highland maid,—
 Free hadst thou been to come and go;
 But secret path marks secret foe.
 Nor yet, for this, even⁵ as a spy,⁶
 Hadst thou, unheard, been doom'd to die,
 Save to fulfil an augury."—
 "Well, let it pass; nor will I now
 Fresh cause of enmity avow,
 To chafe thy mood and cloud thy brow.
 Enough, I am by promise tied
 So match me⁷ with this man of pride;
 Twice have I sought Clan-Alpine's glen
 In peace; but when I come again,
 I come with banner, brand, and bow,
 As leader seeks his mortal foe.
 For love lorn swain, in lady's bower,
 Ne'er panted for the appointed hour,
 As I, until before me stand
 This rebel Chieftain and his band!"

¹ 281 (1). ² 435. ³ 418. ⁴ 485. ⁵ 388. ⁶ 472. ⁷ 302 (2).

25. The dew that used¹ to wet thee,
 And, white first, grow incarnadined because
 It lay upon thee where the crimson was,—
 If dropping now would darken where it met thee.
 The heart doth recognize thee,
 Alone, alone! the heart doth smell thee sweet,
 Doth view thee fair, doth judge thee most complete,
 Perceiving all those changes that disguise thee.
 Yes and the heart doth owe thee
 More love, dead rose, than to any roses bold
 Which Julia wears at dances, smiling cold:—
 Lie still upon this heart which breaks below thee!

¹ Cf. 450 (4).

26. The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang,
 And through the dark arch a charger sprang,
 Bearing Sir Launfal, the maiden knight,
 In his gilded mail, that flamed so bright
 It seemed the dark castle had gathered all
 Those shafts the fierce sun had shot over its wall
 In his siege of three hundred summers long,
 And, binding them all in one blazing sheaf,
 Had cast them forth: so, young and strong,
 And lightsome as a locust leaf,
 Sir Launfal flashed forth in his maiden mail,
 To seek in all climes for the Holy Grail.

27. One day when the snow was driving so that the sled ahead could not be seen, Tom was seated in the reindeer sled of the train. Suddenly his sled struck a stump on the road, which broke the trace. He shouted as loud as he could, but all to no avail;¹ no one could see him, and the man ahead did not know what had happened. So, after waiting for someone to come back, Tom concluded that they would² not notice he was left until the train stopped—which proved to be the case—and crawled into his sleeping bag which fortunately³ he had with him. Had he tried to run after the train he would probably have lost the trail and wandered about all night; but deer will follow a trail when a man could not see.

¹ 46. ² 215. ³ 391.

28. When the procession had passed, the young Emperor sat looking after it, bonnet still in hand,¹ with an abstracted expression on his face. And² well might he gaze long at the iron arch-bishop; for he had come on a weary journey to see that potentate, and judge for himself, what manner of man he might be who was reported to have remarked to his brother arch-bishop of Cologne, when he cast the vote that helped to make William an Emperor, that the young man was said to be a romantic fool who would be the more easily led by their lordships of Treves and Cologne, than any older and more seasoned noble. Therefore had it been given out that the new Emperor was gone to smite the Saracen, whereas he had merely journeyed from Frankfort to Treves in disguise, to look upon a man who might prove more formidable to his peace than the present Saracen roaming the plains of the East.

¹ 461. ² 424.

29. Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting:¹
 The soul that rises with us, our life's star,
 Hath had elsewhere its setting,
 And cometh from afar;
 Not¹ in entire forgetfulness,
 And not in utter nakedness,
 But trailing clouds of glory, do we come
 From God, who is our home.
 Heaven lies about us in our infancy!
 Shades of the prison-house begin to close
 Upon the growing boy,
 But he beholds the light, and whence it flows—
 He sees it in his joy;
 The youth, who daily further from the east
 Must travel, still is Nature's priest,
 And by the vision splendid
 Is on his way attended;
 At length the man perceives it die away,
 And fade into the light of common day.

¹ 46. ² 392.

30. Upon the afternoon of which I now speak, in the midsummer of the year 1621, as I sat upon my saddle-bags, my long pipe between my teeth, and my eyes upon the pallid stream below, my thoughts were busy with these matters—so busy that I did not see a horse and rider emerge from the dimness of the forest into the cleared space before my palisade, nor know, until his voice came up the bank, that my good friend was without and would speak to me.

31. We see but half the causes of our deeds,
 Seeking¹ them wholly in the outer life,
 And heedless of the encircling spirit-world,
 Which, though unseen, is felt, and sows in us
 All germs of pure and world-wide purposes.
 From one stage of our being to the next
 We pass unconscious o'er a slender bridge,
 The momentary work of unseen hands,
 Which crumbles down behind us; looking back,
 We see the other shore, the gulf between,
 And marvelling how we won to where we stand,²
 Content ourselves to call the builder chance.

¹ 373 (5). ² See p. 354.

32. O for¹ the coming of that glorious time when, prizing knowledge as her noblest wealth and best protection, this imperial Realm, while she exacts allegiance, shall admit an obligation, on her part, to teach them who are born to serve her and obey; binding herself by statute to secure for all the children whom her soil maintains the rudiments of letters, and inform the mind with moral and religious truth.

¹ 481.

33. I recollect now that I began to wonder where the storm would first strike us, whether we should sink at once, or be torn into ten thousand fragments, what my sensations would be at the moment of impact; and then a blank intervened, I suppose, for the next thing I remember was seeing a huge mass of revolving water hurrying away to leeward and hearing a cheery voice shout "Square away the mainyard, bear a hand, my hearties!"

34. A man's dog stands by him in prosperity and in poverty, in health and in sickness. He will sleep on the cold ground, where the wintry winds blow and the snow drives fiercely, if only he may be near his master's side. He will kiss the hand that has no food to offer; he will lick the wounds and sores that come in encounter with the roughness of the world. He guards the sleep of his pauper master as if he were a prince. When all other friends desert he remains. When riches take wings and reputation falls to pieces, he is as constant in his love as the sun in its journey through the heavens. If fortune drives the master forth an outcast¹ in the world, friendless and homeless, the faithful dog asks no higher privilege than that of accompanying him to guard against danger, to fight against his enemies; and when the last scene of all comes, and death takes the master in its embrace and his body is laid away in the cold ground, no matter if all other friends pursue their way, there by his graveside will the noble dog be found, with his head between his paws, his eyes sad but open in alert watchfulness, faithful and true even in death.²

¹ 138. ² Note the subjective complements.

35. Time glides away and we grow old
 By process of the silent years,
 More fain¹ the busy hands to fold,
 More quiet when a tale is told,
 When death appears.

It is not that the feet would shrink,
 From that dark river, lapping, cold,
 And hid with mists from brink to brink,
 Only one likes to sit and think,
 As one grows old.

¹ 138.

36. I find no pleasure, therefore, in taxing the English with departing from nature in their external appearance, which is all I yet know of their character ; it is possible they only endeavor to improve her simple plan, since every extravagance in dress proceeds from a desire of becoming more beautiful¹ than nature made us ; and this is so harmless a vanity, that I not only pardon, but approve it ; a desire to be more excellent than others is what actually makes us so ;² and as thousands find a livelihood in society by such appetites, none but the ignorant inveigh against them.

¹ 464. ² 475.

37. But when it is coolly proposed that two self-seeking companies shall put their heads together for the purpose of making fabulous gains out of the demand for a prime necessity of life, thereby defeating the beneficent designs of nature, which has provided such bounteous storehouses of the material for the benefit of the whole people, the plotters are reckoning without their host. We are not sure, that a temporary triumph of the combine would not be a blessing in disguise, by hastening as it most surely would, the day when the public control of railways and public ownership of the treasures of the earth shall have become recognized as¹ the intention of nature, and a necessity of advancing civilization.

¹ 472.

38. Many, I believe, thought that the more they subscribed the safer they would be, but it seemed to me that money could do nothing in such an emergency to avert the blow. For, by the time that the misdoer would have been punished (had it been done at all), about two or three hundred undisciplined fellows were raised and armed, such as journeymen of various employments and several gentlemen's servants.

39. If it be reasonable to estimate the difficulty of any enterprise by frequent miscarriages, it may justly be concluded that it is not easy for a man to know himself ; for wheresoever we turn our view, we shall find almost all with whom we converse so nearly as to judge of their sentiments, indulging more favorable conceptions of their own virtue than they have been able to impress upon others, and congratulating themselves upon degrees of excellence, which their fondest admirers cannot allow them to have attained.

40. " Now, in good sooth,¹" Lord Marmion cried,
 " Were I in warlike wise to ride,
 A better guard I would not lack,
 Than your stout foragers at my back ;
 But, as in form of peace I go,
 A friendly messenger,² to know
 Why through all Scotland, near and far,
 Their king is mustering troops for war,
 The sight of plundering Border spears
 Might justify suspicious fears,
 And deadly feud, or thirst of spoil,
 Break out in some unseemly broil."³

¹ 485. ² 138.

41. After due pause, they bade him tell
 Why he, who touched the harp so well,¹
 Should thus, with ill-rewarded toil,
 Wander a poor and thankless soil,²

¹ 479. ² A poetic construction.

When the more generous Southern Land
 Would well requite his skilful hand.
 The aged Harper, howsoe'er
 His only friend, his harp, was dear,
 Liked not to hear it ranked so high
 Above his flow'ring poesy:
 Less liked he still, that scornful jeer
 Misprised the land he loved so dear.

- 42 Ah! who¹ but oft has marvelled
 The gods who rule above [why
 Should e'er permit the young to die,
 The old to fall in love?
 Ah! why should hapless human kind
 Be punished out of season—
 Pray listen² and perhaps you'll find
 My rhyme may give the reason.
 Death, strolling out one summer day,
 Met Cupid with his sparrows,
 And, bantering in a merry way,
 Proposed a change of arrows.
- “Agreed,” quoth Cupid, “I foresee
 The queerest game of errors;
 For you the King of Hearts will be,
 And I'll be King of Terrors!”
 And so 'twas done—alas, the day³
 That multiplied their arts!
 Each from the other tore away
 A portion of his darts.
 And that explains the reason why,
 Despite the gods above,
 The young are often doomed to die,
 The old to fall in love!

¹ 477 (2). ² 477, 438 (2). ³ 436

43. A restaurant becomes a bit of a desert towards three o'clock; and after a while, young Teezle, for that was his name, got to putting down his book and chatting to me. His father was dead, which, judging¹ from what he told me of the old man, must have been a bit of luck for everybody; and his mother, it turned out,² had come from my own part of the country, and that constituted a sort of bond between us, seeing³ I had known all her people pretty intimately. He was earning good pay at a dairy, where the work was scouring milk cans; and his Christian name—which was the only thing Christian about him, and that somehow didn't seem to fit—was David.

¹ 462. ² 391. ³ 420, 462.

44. An Eskimo finds it hard indeed, to understand that you can pay back a debt you may wish to contract, unless you have the visible means at hand; and had Charlie not known James several years and always been treated well by the officers, it is extremely doubtful if he would have allowed his deer to be taken. It was not without many misgivings, however, that he finally let them go; for it must be remembered they represented the support of his family and those dependent on him. He was afraid there might be delay in obtaining the deer from Siberia in the spring, and then the other natives would laugh at him.

45. On and on went the pair, to the delight of the entire army—a glorious race;¹ and not until the maddened animals were seen to be heading straight for the British lines did any one begin to look grave. “Why, confound² the fellow,” said the Duke, “he is leading my brother straight for the British lines. What if they were to gallop into range of their guns?” As though in answer to this speech, there was a puff of smoke from the top of the hill in the distance; and though the missile did not reach within half a mile of the galloping pair, it was, nevertheless, clear that they had been observed and that the shot might be accepted as a warning.

¹ 135. ² 477 (2)

46. If with readier ear thou heedest what the Inward Teacher saith,
 Listening with a willing spirit and a child-like faith,
 Thou may'st live to bless the giver, who, himself but frail and weak,
 Would at least the highest welfare of another seek :
 And his gift, though poor and lowly it may seem to other eyes,
 Yet may prove an angel holy in a pilgrim's guise.

47. Fallen cherv, to be weak is miserable,
 Doing or suffering ;¹ but of this be sure,
 To do aught good never will be our task,
 But ever to do ill our sole delight,
 As being the contrary to his high will
 Whom we resist. If then his providence
 Out of our evil seek to bring forth good,
 Our labor must be to prevent that end,
 And out of good still to find means of evil,
 Which ofttimes may succeed, so as perhaps
 Shall grieve him, if I fail not and disturb
 His inmost counsels from their destined aim.

¹ Adv., by abbreviation.

48. If that high world which lies beyond
 Our own, surviving love endears,
 If there the cherished heart be fond,
 The eye the same except in tears—
 How welcome those untrodden spheres,
 How sweet this very hour to die,
 To soar from earth and find all fears
 Lost in thy light—Eternity.

It must be so: 'tis not for self
 That we so tremble on the brink;
 And striving to o'erleap the gulf,
 Yet cling to Being's severing link.
 Oh, in that future let us think
 To hold each heart the heart that shares,
 With them the immortal waters drink,
 And, soul in soul, grow deathless, theirs.

49. That time of year thou mayst in me behold
 When yellow leaves, or none or few do hang
 Upon those boughs which shake against the cold,
 Bare ruin'd choirs, where late the sweet birds sang.
 In me thou see'st the twilight of such day,
 As after sun-set fadeth in the west,
 Which by and by black night doth take away,
 Death's second self, that seals up all in rest.
 In me thou seest the glowing of such fire,
 That on the ashes of his youth doth lie,
 As the death-bed whereon it must expire,
 Consumed with that which it was nourished by.
 This thou perceiv'st, which makes thy love more strong,
 To love that well which thou must leave ere long.

50. I thought of Thee, my partner and my guide,
 As being passed away.—Vain sympathies!
 For backward, Duddon, as I cast my eyes,
 I see what was, and is, and will abide;
 Still glides the stream, and shall not cease to glide;
 The Form remains, the Function never dies;
 While we, the brave, the mighty and the wise,
 We Men, who in our morn of youth defied
 The elements, must vanish; be it so!

51. She had declared to the Governor her very earnest desire to hold her lands from the Queen, on condition that, instead of being bound to supply so many soldiers when called upon, she should maintain her ships and her sailors and her fighting men, so that they would always be ready to do the Queen's will whether it was in the western coasts of Ireland or of Scotland. To be sure, she could not do but as she was ordered. She trusted, however, to receive due consideration when her petition came to be considered.

52. It appeareth in nothing more, that atheism is rather in the lip than in the heart of man, than by this, that atheists will ever be talking of that their opinion, as if they fainted in it themselves, and would be glad to be strengthened by the consent of others; nay, more, you shall have atheists strive to get disciples, as it fareth with other sects; and, which is most of all, you shall have them that will suffer for atheism, and not recant: whereas, if they did truly think that there were no such thing as God, why should they trouble themselves?

53. All violet-crowned do eastern hills stand waiting for the sun,
 Night's glimmering lamps burn lower one by one.¹
 While all around to woods and rocks do troops of shadows run,
 As being conscious that their time is done.

On river mist there falls a softer and more tender gray;
 From mountain-side the vapor falls away;
 Those summits kissed with sunlight, altar fires about them play;²
 Birds pour their hearts in song to welcome day!

What man would dare try to describe the setting of the sun,—
 Tell with what pageantry that course is run!
 How gloriously fair the evening clouds are painted, every one!
 And night with flame is signalled—day is done!

And this goes on, a miracle repeated round the earth;
 Somewhere each hour a day comes to its birth—
 Somewhere is gone: between its coming and its going forth
 A witness of what sorrow, of what mirth!

Who can conceive a vision fairer—music more sublime
 Than harmony of vespers and of prime?
 Who fail to grieve he has not wings of thought whereby to climb,
 Till he sees risings, settings, all the time?

¹ In Old English, the repetition of an act was sometimes expressed by repeating the adverbial phrase; thus, *by one and by one*, or, *by one by one*; or, *by one and one*. The omission of *by* in the first produced the modern idiom. So, too, with *foot by foot*, *year by year*, etc. ² 488

54. Sure he that made us with such large discourse,
 Looking before and after, gave us not
 That capability and god-like reason
 To fust in us unused. Now, whether it be
 Bestial oblivion, or some craven scruple
 Of thinking too precisely on the event,—
 A thought which quartered hath but one part wisdom
 And, ever, three parts coward,—I do not know
 Why yet I live to say, “This thing’s to do.”

55. As I stood looking at the great wall of empty hogsheads in front of me, wondering if it would not be better to give up searching any more on this vessel which evidently had not been laden with valuables; and make some sort of plan for fastening lines to those treasure boxes so that they might be hauled up on board the brig, I began to feel a sort of trouble with my breath as if I were in a very close room where I might suffocate if I did not get out soon.

56. “Noble King of England,” he said, “we now part, never to meet again. That your league is dissolved, no more to be reunited, and that your native forces are far too few to enable you to prosecute your enterprise, is as well known to me as to yourself. I may not yield you up that Jerusalem which you so much desire to hold. It is to us, as to you, a Holy City. But whatever other terms Richard demands of Saladin, shall be as willingly yielded as yonder fountain yields its waters. Ay, and the same should be as frankly afforded by Saladin, if Richard stood in the desert with but two archers in his train!”

57. I was like enough to have paid for my rashness with my life; for, as I emerged upon the deck of the poop, the point of a sword flashed off my body armour, and I received so violent a buffet upon my shoulder from a battle axe, that I nearly lost my footing, and, as it was, would have done so but for the press of men behind me.

58. Firmly as he believed¹ that a time of trial was inevitable, he believed no less firmly that it might be passed at public schools sooner than under other circumstances; and, in proportion as² he disliked the assumption of a false manliness in boys, was his desire to cultivate in them true manliness, as the only step to something higher, and to dwell on earnest principle and moral thoughtfulness, as the great and distinguishing mark between good and evil. Hence his wish that as much as possible should be done by the boys, and nothing for them;³ hence arose his practice, in which his own delicacy of feeling and uprightness of purpose powerfully assisted him, of treating the boys as gentlemen and reasonable beings, of making them respect themselves by the mere respect he showed to them; of showing that he appealed and trusted to their own common sense and conscience.

¹ 472. ² Criticize. ³ Criticize.

59. And yet, dear heart, remembering thee,
 Am I not richer than of old?
 Safe in thy immortality,
 What change can reach the wealth I hold?

What chance can mar the pearl and gold
 Thy love hath left in trust with me ?
 And while in life's late afternoon,
 When cool and long the shadows grow,
 I walk to meet the night that soon
 Shall shape and shadow overflow,
 I cannot feel that thou art far,
 Since near at need the angels are ;
 And when the sunset gates unbar,
 Shall I not see thee waiting stand,
 And white against the evening star,
 The welcome of thy beckoning hand ?

60. So live that when thy summons comes to join
 The innumerable caravan that moves
 To that mysterious realm where each shall take
 His chamber in the silent halls of death,
 Thou go not, like the quarry-slave at night,
 Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
 By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
 Like one that draws the drapery of his couch
 About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.
61. Some hand that never meant to do thee hurt,
 Has crushed thee here between these pages pent ;
 But thou hast left thine own fair monument,—
 Thy wings gleam out and tell me what thou wert.
 O that the memories which survive us here
 Were half as lovely as those wings of thine ;
 Pure relics of a blameless life, that shine
 Now that thou art gone. Our doom is ever near ;
 The peril is beside us day by day ;
 The book will close upon us, it may be,
 Just as we lift ourselves to soar away
 Upon the summer airs. But, unlike thee,
 The closing book may stop our vital breath,
 Yet leave no lustre on the page of death.
62. O Time ! who knowest a lenient hand to lay
 Softest on sorrow's wound, and slowly thence,
 Lulling to sad repose the weary sense,
 The faint pang stealest unperceived away ;
 On thee I rest my only hope at last,
 And think when thou hast dried the bitter tear
 That flows in vain o'er all my soul held dear,
 I may look back on every sorrow past
 And meet life's peaceful evening with a smile ;
 As some lone bird, at day's departing hour,
 Sings in the sunbeam, of the transient shower
 Forgetful, though its wings are wet the while ;
 Yet ah ! how much must that poor heart endure,
 Which hopes from thee, and thee alone, a cure.

63. "There never yet was flower fair in vain,
 Let classic poets rhyme it¹ as they will :
 The seasons toil that it may blow again,
 And summer's heart doth feel its every ill ;
 Nor is a true soul ever born for naught ;
 Wherever any such hath lived and died,
 There hath been something for true freedom wrought,
 Some bulwark levelled on the evil side :
 Toil on, then, Greatness ! thou art in the right,
 However narrow souls may call thee wrong ;
 Be as thou would'st be in thine own clear sight,
 And so thou wilt in all the world's ere long ;
 For worldlings cannot, struggle as they may,²
 From man's great soul one great thought hide away.

¹ 299 (4). ² 472.

64. The stars are glittering in the frosty sky,
 Frequent¹ as pebbles on a broad sea coast ;
 And o'er the vault the cloud-like galaxy
 Has marshalled its innumerable host.
 Alive all heaven seems ! with wondrous glow
 Tenfold refulgent every star appears,
 As if some wide celestial gale did blow,
 And thrice illumine the ever-kindled spheres.
 Orbs, with glad orbs rejoicing, burning beam,
 Ray-crown'd, with lambent lustre in their zones,
 Till, o'er the blue bespangled spaces, seem
 Angels and great archangels on their thrones ;
 A host divine, whose eyes are sparkling gems,
 And forms more bright than diamond diadems.

¹ 138, 490.

65. Let me quote once more from opinions expressed three years ago :—"Let us in discussing the future that lies before us, consider what future measure of authority in particular we should possess, and what further responsibilities we should, in decency and fairness to the parent state, be prepared to assume ; because I take it that the moment we enter the field of external relation as one with which we have to do, and as one which politically concerns us, we cannot stand toward the mother country, in reference to questions of defence, as we stood before. There has been on the part of the English Government, ever since Parliamentary Government for domestic purposes reached maturity, a determination to throw upon the colonies the maintenance of peace within their own borders."

66. "Charlotte, my dear, how is it that I find you weeping ? Have you had bad news from your husband ?" "Oh, worse than that ! My Arthur writes me from Carlsbad that he would die with ardent longings for me, were it not that he could gaze affectionately at my picture, and cover it with a thousand kisses every day." "That is really very nice of him. And, pray, is it that you are crying for ? I would give anything to have such a poetic and tenderly-loving husband as you have." "Ah, yes, my Arthur is very poetical ; but let me tell you that, just to try him, I slipped mother's photo into his travelling bag instead of my own before he started."

67. The necessity of setting the world at a distance from us when we are to take a survey of ourselves, has sent many from high stations to the severities of a monastic life ; and, indeed, every man deeply engaged in business, if all regard to another estate be not extinguished, must have the conviction, though, perhaps, not the resolution of Valdesso, who, when he solicited Charles the Fifth to dismiss him, being asked whether he retired upon disgust, answered that he laid down his commission for no other reason than because there ought to be some time for sober reflection between the life of a soldier and his death.

68. It would be foolish to assure you of my innocence: I know your mind is made up that I am guilty. But your son believed me innocent, and, believing so, he left me the duty of looking after your children whom you neglect disgracefully, as every one knows. Let me tell you this: I have more respect for the mother of my dead son as expressed in this letter, which you can read if you like, than for any threats of yours, enforced if you will by all the power of the Empire, and by all the terrors of the fortress prison. So long as I am free and able to go where I will, I shall find measures to see my ward's children, whether you bid your servants refuse me admittance or not.

69. Whatever else you may be, at least¹ you are an honest man like your grandfather before you : were it not so you would never have come to tell this child that your fortune is her fortune, and your title her title ; though whether this is the case or not, I neither know nor care, since at least you are of the blood of my adopted son, and that is more to me than any wealth or rank. As for you, you are pert and deceitful, for you have kept secret from me that which I had a right to learn ; also, you have too good an opinion of your own looks, which, as I tell you now for the last time, are nothing compared to my own at your age, or even to those of my daughter, your grandmother.

¹ 388.

70.

Should God again,
As once in Gibeon, interrupt the race
Of the undeviating and punctual sun,
How would the world admire ! but speaks it less
An agency divine to make him know
His moment when to sink and when to rise
Age after age than to arrest his course ?

71.

As when upon a tranced summer-night
Those green-robed senators of mighty woods,
Tall oaks, branch-charmed by the earnest stars,
Dream, and so dream all night without a stir,
Save from one gradual solitary gust
Which comes upon the silence, and dies off,
As if the ebbing air had but one wave ;
So came these words and went ; the while¹ in tears
She touched her fair large forehead to the ground,
Just where her falling hair might be outspread
A soft and silken mat for Saturn's feet.

¹ 420.

72. As we wax older on this earth,
 Till many a toy that charmed us seems
 Emptied of beauty, stripped of worth,
 And mean as dust and vain as dreams—
 For gauds that perished, shows that passed,
 Some recompense the Fates have sent:
 Thrice lovelier shine things that last,
 The things that are more excellent.

Tired of the Senate's barren brawl,
 An hour with silence we prefer,
 While statelier rise the woods than all
 Yon towers of talk at Westminster.
 Let this man prate and that man plot,
 On fame or place or title bent:
 The votes of veering crowds are not
 The things that are more excellent.

73. I deny not but that¹ it is of greatest concernment in the church and commonwealth, to have a vigilant eye how books demean themselves, as well as men; and therefore to confine, imprison, and do sharpest justice on them as malefactors; for books are not absolutely dead things, but do contain a progeny of life in them, to be as active as that soul was whose progeny they are; nay, they do preserve as in a vial the purest efficacy and extraction of that living intellect that bred them.

¹ 491.

74. Some disquietude was caused a few days since by the rumour which came from Washington sources to the effect that some new difficulty had arisen to delay proceedings in connection with the Behring Sea arbitration. There is now good reason to hope that either the rumour was unfounded, or that the difficulty has been overcome, whatever may have been its nature. There seems, however, to be a good deal of delay in completing the arrangements; and, if the fault is on the part of Lord Salisbury, it would not be surprising if the United States authorities should become a little restive, since it must be to their interest to have their rights defined before the opening of another fishing season. This is assuming that they may reasonably expect to have certain territorial rights recognized, and to be enabled thereby to mount guard over a certain area more effectively than was done last season under the joint arrangement. Whether they have any good ground to expect such a concession is another question. Be that as it may, everyone concerned will feel a sense of relief when it is announced that the arbitrators have been finally chosen, and a day fixed for the commencement of their deliberations.

75. Yet, as few maxims are widely received or long retained, but for some conformity with truth and nature, it must be confessed, that this caution against keeping our view too intent upon remote advantages, is not without its propriety or usefulness; though it may have been recited with too much levity, or enforced with too little distinction; for, not to speak of that vehemence of desire which presses through right and wrong to its gratification, or that anxious ingratitude which is justly chargeable with distrust of Heaven, subjects too solemn for my present purpose; it frequently happens

that, by indulging early the raptures of success, we forget the measures necessary to secure it, and suffer the imagination to riot in the fruition of some possible good, till the time of obtaining it has slipped away.

76. God is master of the scenes ; we must not choose which part we shall act ; it concerns us only to be careful that we do it well, always saying, " If this please God, let it be as it is ; " and we who pray that God's will be done on earth as it is in heaven, must remember that the angels do whatsoever is commanded them, and go wherever they are sent, and refuse no circumstances ; and if their employment be crossed by a higher decree, they sit down in peace, and rejoice in the event ; and when the angel of Judea could not prevail in behalf of the people committed to his charge, because the angel of Persia opposed it, he only told the story of the command of God, and was as content, and worshipped with as great an ecstasy in his proportion, as the prevailing spirit.

77. When in the woods I wander all alone.

The woods that are my solace and delight,
Which I more covet than a prince's throne,
My toil by day and canopy by night ;
(Light heart, light foot, light food, and slumber light,
These lights shall light us to old age's gate,
While monarchs, whom rebellious dreams affright,
Heavy with fear, death's fearful summons wait ;)
Whilst here I wander, pleased to be alone,
Weighing in thought the world's no happiness,
I cannot choose but wonder at its moan,
Since so plain joys the woody life can bless ;
Then live who may where honied words prevail,
I with the deer, and with the nightingale !

78. The range between the piteous " no more but so " in which Ophelia compresses the heart-break whose compression was to make her mad, and that sublime appeal of Lear to the elements of Nature only to be matched, if matched at all, in the " Prometheus," is a wide one, and Shakespeare is as truly simple in the one as in the other. The simplicity of poetry is not that of prose, nor its clearness that of ready apprehension merely—To a subtle sense, a sense heightened by sympathy, those sudden fervors of phrase, gone ere one can say it lightens, that show us Macbeth groping among the complexities of thought in his conscience-clouded mind, and reveal the intricacy rather than enlighten it, while they leave the eye darkened to the literal meaning of the words, yet make their logical sequence, the grandeur of the conception, and its truth to Nature clearer than sober daylight could. There is an obscurity of mist rising from the undrained shallows of the mind, and there is the darkness of thunder-cloud gathering its electric masses with passionate intensity from the clear element of the imagination, not at random or wilfully, but by the natural processes of the creative faculty, to brood those flashes of expression that transcend rhetoric, and are only to be apprehended by the poetic instinct.

79. Going yesterday to dine with an old acquaintance, I had the misfortune to find his whole family very much dejected. Upon asking him the occasion of it, he told me that his wife had dreamt a very strange dream the night before, which they were afraid portended some misfortune to themselves or

to their children. At her coming into the room, I observed a settled melancholy in her countenance, which I should have been troubled for, had I not heard from whence² it proceeded. We were no sooner sat down, but,³ after having looked upon me a little while, "My dear," said she, turning to her husband, "you may now see the stranger that was in the candle last night." Soon after this, as they began to talk of family affairs, a little boy at the lower end of the table told her that he was to go into long-hand on Thursday. "Thursday!" says she; "No, child; if it please God, you shall not begin upon Childermas-day; tell your writing-master that Friday will be soon enough."

¹ 457. ² Value of -ce not felt. ³ Criticize.

80. Whether it was the result of religious divisions or physical convulsions, or civil feuds—whether it was due to the gradual dissolution or the sudden dismemberment of tribal relations—whether it was simply caused by the natural growth of population, or by the restless spirit of enterprise—all this is buried in eternal oblivion; but the main fact is certain, that 'Westward the course of empires took its way,' and the conclusions on which we are about to dwell may be regarded as established in their broad outlines if not in their more minute details.

81. While justice, candour, equanimity, a zeal for the good of your country, and the most persuasive eloquence in bringing others over to it, are valuable distinctions, you are not to expect that the public will so far comply with your inclinations, as to forbear celebrating such extraordinary qualities. It is in vain that you have endeavoured to conceal your share of merit in the many national services which you have affected. Do what you will, the present age will be talking of your virtues, though posterity alone will do them justice.

82. "There are many things from which I might have derived good, by which I have not profited, I dare say," returned the nephew, "Christmas among the rest. But I am sure I have always thought of Christmas time, when it has come round—apart from the veneration due to its sacred name and origin, if anything belonging to it can be apart from that—as a good time; a kind, forgiving, charitable, pleasant time; the only time I know of, in the long calendar of the year, when men and women seem by one consent to open their shut-up hearts freely, and to think of people below them as if they were fellow-passengers to the grave, and not another race of creatures bound on other journeys. And, therefore, uncle, though it has never put a scrap of gold or silver in my pocket, I believe it has done me good, and will do me good; and I say, 'God bless it.'"

83. Let a clear, apprehensive mind, such as every man knows among his friends, converse with the most commanding poetic genius, I think it would appear that there was no inequality such as men fancy between them; that a perfect understanding, a like receiving, a like perceiving, abolished differences; and the poet would confess that his creature imagination gave him no deep advantage, but only the superficial one, that he could express himself, and the other could not; that his advantage was a knack which might impose on indolent men, but could not impose on lovers of truth; for they know the tax of talent, or what a price of greatness the power of expression too often pays. I believe it is the conviction of the purest men, that the net amount of man and man does not much vary.

84. If true there be another, better land,
A fairer than this humble mother shore,
Hoping to meet the blesséd gone before,
I fain would go. But may no angel hand
Lead on so far along the shining sand,
So wide within the everlasting door,
'Twill shut away this good, green world. No more
Of earth!—Let me not hear that dread command.
85. Herein will I imitate the sun
Who doth permit the base contagious clouds
To smother up his beauty from the world,
That when he please again to be himself,
Being wanted, he may be more wondered at
By breaking through the foul and ugly mists
Of vapors that did seem to strangle him.
If all the year were playing holidays,
To sport would be as tedious as to work.
But when they seldom come, they wished-for come,
And nothing pleaseth but rare accidents.
So, when this loose behaviour I throw off,
And pay the debt I never promised,
By how much better than my word I am,
By so much shall I falsify men's hopes ;
And like bright metal on a sullen ground,
My reformation, glittering o'er my fault,
Shall show more goodly and attract more eyes
Than that which hath no foil to set it off.
I'll so offend to make offence a skill,
Redeeming time when men think least I will.
86. Leader of those armies bright,
Which but the Omnipotent none could have foiled,
If once they hear that voice, their liveliest pledge
Of hope in fears and dangers, heard so oft
In worst extremes and on the perilous edge
Of battle, when it raged, in all assaults
Their surest signal, they will soon resume
New courage and revive ; though now they lie
Grovvelling and prostrate on yon lake of fire,
As we erewhile, astounded and amazed :
No wonder, fallen such a pernicious height.
87. But what if he, our Conqueror, whom I now
Of force believe almighty, since no less
Than such could have o'erpowered such force as ours,
Have left us this our spirit and strength entire.
Strongly to suffer and support our pains,
That we may so suffice his vengeful ire,
Or do him mightier service as his thralls
By right of war, whate'er his business be,
Here in the heart of hell to work in fire,

Or do his errands in the gloomy deep ?
 What can it then avail, though yet we feel
 Strength undiminish'd, or eternal being
 To undergo eternal punishment.

88. O myriads of immortal spirits, O Powers
 Matchless, but with the Almighty ; and that strife
 Was not inglorious, though th' event was dire,
 As this place testifies, and this dire change,
 Hateful to utter : but what power of mind,
 Foreseeing or presaging, from the depth
 Of knowledge past or present, could have feared,
 How such united force of gods, how such
 As stood like these, could ever know repulse?
 For who can yet believe, though after loss,
 That all the puissant legions, whose exile
 Hath emptied Heav'n, shall fail to reascend
 Self-raised and repossess their native seat?

89. The colonel, as soon as he could be removed from the English hospital was exchanged for an English prisoner of equal rank ; and as he and young Downy happened to be despatched invalided to St. Petersburg by the same conveyance, it was only natural that they should make friends by the way. As a matter of fact, the young huzzar was greatly attracted by his brother officer, and, though the colonel cordially reciprocated his advances, he could not help feeling that Downy's tone towards him partook somewhat of *de haut en bas*, as though the huzzar was well aware that in fraternizing with a linesman he was making a concession. Possibly the colonel in the zealous dignity of the infantry officer, imagined more than really existed of the affectation on the part of Downy, who would have been extremely surprised if any one had suggested to him that he had adopted such an attitude towards his fellow-travellers, much as he might be supposed to think of his position.

90. It is when the sentimentalist turns preacher of morals that we investigate his character, and are justified in so doing. He may express as many and as delicate shades of feeling as he likes,—for this the sensibility of his organism perfectly fits him, no other person could do it so well,—but the moment he undertakes to establish his feelings as a rule of conduct, we ask at once how far are his own life and deed in accordance with what he preaches? for every man feels instinctively that all the beautiful sentiments in the world weigh less than a single lovely action; and that, while tenderness of feelings and susceptibility to generous emotions are accidents of temperament, goodness is an achievement of the will and a quality of the life. Fine words, says our homely old proverb, butter no parsnips; and if the question be how to make those vegetables palatable, an ounce of butter would be worth more than all the orations of Cicero.

91. Even as a bird, 'mid the beloved leaves,
 Quiet upon the nest of her sweet brood
 Throughout the night, that hideth all things from us,
 Who, that she may behold their longed-for looks,
 And find the nourishment wherewith to feed them,
 In which, to her, grave labors, grateful are,

Anticipates the time on open spray,
 And with ardent longing waits the sun,
 Gazing intent as soon as breaks the dawn;
 Even thus my Lady standing was, erect
 And vigilant, turned round towards the zone
 Underneath which the sun displays least haste;
 So that beholding her distraught and eager,
 Such I became as he is, who desiring
 For something yearns, and hoping is appeased.

92. I have been in the meadows all the day
 And gathered there the nosegay that you see,
 Singing within myself as bird or bee,
 When such do field-work on a morn of May.
 But, now I look upon my flowers, decay
 Has met them in my hands more fatally
 Because more warmly clasped,—and sobs are free
 To come instead of songs. What do you say,
 Sweet counsellors, dear friends? that I should go
 Back straightway to the fields and gather more?
 Another, sooth, may do it but not I!
 My heart is very tired, my strength is low,
 My hands are full of blossoms plucked before,
 Held dead within them till myself shall die.
93. I laugh, when those who at the spear are bold
 And venturous, if that fail them, shrink¹ and fear
 What yet they know must follow, to endure²
 Exile or ignominy or bonds or pain,
 The sentence of their conqueror. This is now
 Our doom; which if we can sustain and bear,
 Our supreme foe in time may much remit
 His anger; and perhaps thus far removed,
 Not mind us not offending, satisfied
 With what is punished.

¹ Note omission. ² 135.

94. They heard, and were abashed, and up they sprung
 Upon the wing; as when men went to watch
 On duty, sleeping found by whom they dread,
 Rouse and bestir themselves 'ere well awake.
 Nor did they not perceive the evil plight
 In which they were, or the fierce pains not feel;
 Yet to their general's voice they soon obeyed,
 Innumerable. As when the potent rod
 Of Amrams's son, in Egypt's evil day
 Waved round the coasts, up called a pitchy cloud
 Of locusts, warping on the eastern wind,
 That o'er the realm of impious Pharaoh hung
 Like night, and darkened all the land of Nile:
 So numberless were those bad angels seen.

95. If, as I take it, you are marauders seeking gain from belated wayfarers, it is but honest to tell you that, in case of victory, which is doubtful, seeing you are but two, and Germans at that, there is little to be picked from me, but hard knocks, or, given a proper distance, a well placed shaft, which you would find harder to digest than anything you have taken inwardly this some time past. I say this but in the way of fair dealing as between man and man, to prevent after disappointment, and not as prejudicing a fair encounter, should your inclination tend in that direction.

96. Self-love, which, never rightly understood,
 Makes poets still conclude their plays are good,
 And malice in all critics reigns so high
 That for small errors they whole plays deery;
 So that to see this fondness and that spite,
 You'd think that none but madmen judge or write.
 Therefore our poet, as he thinks not fit
 To impose upon you what he writes for wit,
 So hopes, that, leaving you your censures free,
 You equal judges of the whole will be:
 They judge but half, who only faults will see.
 Poets, like lovers, should be bold and dare,
 They spoil their business with an over-care;
 And he, who servilely creeps after sense,
 Is safe, but ne'er shall reach an excellence.
 Hence, 'tis our poet, in his conjuring,
 Allowed his fancy the full scope and swing.
 But when a tyrant for his theme he had,
 He loosed the reins, and bid his muse run mad;
 And though he stumbles in a full career,
 Yet rashness is a better fault than fear.

97. Those heaped affronts that haughty subjects bring
 Are burdens for a camel, not a king.
 Kings are the public pillars of the State,
 Born to sustain and prop the nation's weight:
 If my young Sampson will pretend a call
 To shake the column, let him share the fall;
 But, oh, that yet he would repent and live!
 How easy 'tis for parents to forgive!
 With how few tears a pardon might be won
 From nature, pleading for a darling son!
 Poor pitied youth, by my paternal care
 Raised up to all the height his frame could bear!
 Had God ordained his fate for empire born,
 He would have given his soul another turn;
 Gulled with a patriot's name, whose modern sense
 Is one that would by law supplant his prince;
 The peoples' slave, the politicians' tool;
 Never was patriot yet but was a fool.
 There is a bondage worse, far worse, to bear
 Than his¹ who breathes, by roof and floor, and wall
 Pent in, a tyrant's solitary thrall;

¹ 371.

'Tis his who walks about in the open air,
 One of a nation who henceforth must wear
 Their fetters in their souls. For who could be,
 Who, even the best, in such condition free
 From self-reproach, reproach that he must share
 With human nature? Never be it ours
 To see the sun how brightly it will shine,
 And know that noble feelings, manly powers,
 Instead of gathering strength, must droop and pine.

98. Perplex'd and troubled at his bad success¹
 The tempter stood, nor had what to reply,
 Discover'd² in his fraud, thrown from his hope
 So oft, and³ the persuasive rhetoric
 That sleek'd his tongue, and won so much on Eve,
 So little here, nay, lost; but Eve was Eve:
 This for his overmatch, who, self-deceived
 And rash, beforehand had no better weigh'd
 The strength he was to cope with, or his own.

¹ Archaic. ² 373 (5). ³ 435.

99. So please my lord the duke, and all the court,
 To quit the fine for one-half of his goods,
 I am content, so he will let me have
 The other half in use to render it,
 Upon his death, unto the gentleman
 That lately stole his daughter;
 Two things provided more—that, for this favor,
 He presently become a Christian;
 The other, that he do record a gift,
 Here in the court, of all he dies possess'd,
 Unto his son Lorenzo and his daughter.
100. As a huge stone is sometimes seen to lie
 Couched on the bald top of an eminence;
 Wonder to all who do the same espy,
 By what means it could thither come, and whence;
 So that it seems a thing endued with sense:
 Like a sea-beast crawled forth, that on a shelf
 Of rock or sand reposes, there to sun itself;
 Such seem'd this man, not all alive nor dead,
 Nor all asleep—in his extreme old age:
 His body was bent double, feet and head
 Coming together in life's pilgrimage;
 As if some dire constraint of pain, or rage
 Of sickness felt by him in times long past,
 A more than human weight upon his frame had cast.

EXERCISES.

PART III.

SENTENCES FOR CRITICISM.

 *Some of the sentences are correct.*

I.

1. She wrote among other works a spirited defence of her sex. 2. No stronger and stranger a figure is described in the history of modern England. 3. If I were old enough to be married, I am old enough to manage my father's house. 4. Having perceived the weakness of his poems, they now reappear under new titles. 5. It is characteristic of ghosts to appear but to one person, and he the most likely to believe in them. 6. I let him have a half dollar, meaning, when I returned, to have divided the rest in equal portions. 7. Your Englishman is just as serious in his pleasures as in any act of his life. 8. In Montreal, he stayed for some weeks, enjoying perhaps the happiest time he had ever spent yet. 9. I had intended to have spoken to you this evening on the subject; but I think I shall defer the conference till to-morrow when I will be able to give a good account of myself. 10. I find the Englishman to be him of all men who stands firmest in his shoes. 11. There were no less than ten members present. 12. I will not assist you on account of your friends, but on account of yourself. 13. More than one man has been pointed out to me as the author of the letter. 14. If he was the culprit, no blame can be too great for him. 15. They will study such books as may be selected by the teacher and which are to be obtained in the school library. 16. The teaching profession have already so poor salaries that many of its members have a struggle to live. 17. I could not have believed him so foolish as to have acted in this way. 18. A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded. 19. It is surprising how a great part of life is made up of trifles. 20. Whoever the king favors, the duke will find employment for him.

II.

1. I believe the reader may be assisted by placing the facts before him in their proper order. 2. I wish the reader to clearly understand that such has not been my intention. 3. He began to more than hint his suspicions. 4. I am highly gratified by your commendation of Cowper, than whom there never was a more virtuous or abler writer. 5. The returns of the elections, official and otherwise, are all in. 6. I have often thought that, when men are intent on cards, their countenances show more of their real characters than when engaged in conversation. 7. I should like very much to have seen him. 8. He expected to have been gone by now. 9. The least said the soonest mended, runs the homely proverb, and never was more wisdom packed in fewer words. 10. The company expects him to display the same honesty, ability, and perseverance as was shown by his predecessor. 11. 'Twas Love's mistake, who fancied what it feared. 12. Each of you must look after your own desk. 13. There was a hen and chickens in the yard. 14. I never visited the place before, so that I was greatly interested in what

I saw. 15. England's and France's armies have fought side by side in one war. 16. He is the chiefest among ten thousand. 17. I shall go to the Fair in the afternoon unless it rains. 18. It is I that am to decide the question. 19. The premier with his cabinet were admitted to an audience. 20. Though he fight hard, he will not win. 21. Though he fights hard, he will not win.

III.

1. Not only Ontario but all Canada were interested. 2. The lion is a fierce animal. 3. A lion is a fierce animal. 4. Religion is surely to be taught; but what of it is to be taught and how? 5. Nothing but wailings were heard. 6. The sea looks rough, and the winds treat him roughly. 7. He has become quite another man to what he was. 8. I found the man's full description in the book. 9. He resolved to go to Leipsic to study music and to make a fortune. 10. I await the teacher's opinion, for whose use the book was prepared. 11. Shelley, like Byron, knew early what it was to love; indeed, almost all great poets have. 12. The son asked his father if he could go to the circus. 13. It was supposed that the waggon-wheels, resting on a smooth surface, would diminish friction. 14. Do not get on or off the cars while in motion. 15. I do not remember to have seen him when I was young. 16. I once believed that, in our estimate of these things, we were nearly of a mind. 17. There were fewer than twenty present. 18. An officer in European and in Indian Service are in very different situations. 19. Is there anything wrong in a teacher taking a higher salary. 20. Adam, the goodliest man of men since born; the fairest of her daughters, Eve.

IV.

1. I told him I should not go. 2. I told him I would not go. 3. The European and African races are not of the same color. 4. His name was published as having attended all the sessions. 5. He is only troublesome when he is in a temper. 6. More than one man has made the same mistake that you did. 7. If he were really to blame, why is he not punished? 8. He shall do as he pleases. 9. Next September, I shall be at school three years. 10. Considering it merely from that point of view, it is a most ancient and odd memorial of his youth. 11. These are friendships which we hoped and believed would never have grown cold. 12. I cannot tell if it be wise or no. 13. Image after image, phrase after phrase, darts out vivid, harsh, emphatic. 14. He said that he would reward any one that would help him. 15. True kindness seldom or ever shows itself in inferior minds. 16. Prospered beyond his utmost expectations, he returned home. 17. He did so probably to show that he neither wished to go or to stay. 18. His evident compassion was not the least, though touching, part of the spectacle. 19. They are not so distant from the camp of Saladin but what they might in a moment be surprised. 20. We will soon see which is the fittest object of contempt, you or me.

V.

1. Shall you be there if I should go? 2. He heard yesterday of his son's murder. 3. He said he wouldn't go any farther. 4. His last journey was to Rome, from whence he was never destined to return. 5. Sir Roger was saying last night that he was of opinion none but men of fine parts deserved to be hung. 6. As is evident, this is the same book which you gave me some years ago. 7. I will not let thee go, except thou bless me. 8. He will make a better teacher than clerk. 9. He will make a better teacher

than a clerk. 10. No person other than a contractor need apply. 11. No person besides a contractor need apply. 12. He always maintained the man does his duty. 13. I should feel obliged if he would gratify me so far. 14. He made up his mind you will go home. 15. He laid the paint quite thick on the door. 16. Whose own example strengthens all his laws, and is himself the great sublime he draws. 17. All the Stuart sovereigns had very few good qualities. 18. He drowned the black and white kittens, but he kept a black and a white one. 19. For thee nor yew nor cypress spread their gloom. 20. Between each of the soldiers was an interval where lay his knapsack.

VI.

1. Every one of us talks worse English every hour of our lives. 2. How sweet these violets smell! 3. During the last century, no prime minister has become rich in office. 4. I intend to have gone by to-morrow. 5. Sarah Bernhardt is the greatest actor of her age. 6. A noun and a participle may be so connected logically as to stand independently of the rest of the sentence. 7. He is the only one who ventured to differ with the minister on any matter. 8. It is I, your teacher, who command you. 9. Directly the session ended, the government appealed to the country. 10. I am not that fond of dogs that I want to have them with me all the time. 11. This statement was repeated and carefully impressed upon the audience. 12. Driving down the street, his horse ran off, and he was thrown out of the carriage. 13. Let none of you imagine evil in your hearts against your neighbors. 14. The Canadian climate is not as equable as those of Northern and Southern California. 15. Neither men nor money was wanting. 16. If he outlive me, he shall find that he was higher in my esteem than perhaps he thinks he was. 17. Is it you that was at the door, or your elder sister? 18. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows, where oxlips and the nodding violet grows. 19. How happy he must have been to have succeeded so well! 20. This publication being somewhat of an official character, I think the profession are entitled to its being accurate.

VII.

1. They have no more control over him than others. 2. They were much opposed to one another. 3. The people is one; they have all one language. 4. And they dreamed a dream, both of them, each man his dream in one night, each man according to the interpretation of his dream. 5. Sorrow not as them that had no hope. 6. I am just arrived from the country, but I find your brother is gone. 7. Scarcely was my brother gone, than he attempted to give me trouble. 8. As sure as you go, you will see him. 9. We already possess four times as great a trade with China as every other nation put together. 10. Few of the crew except yourself, knew of the man being here to-day. 11. I shall complain at once without you act different. 12. I am looking forward to the time when he will talk as much sense to me as I have to him. 13. He did not run yesterday as he wished. 14. He can go as well as you. 15. Crippled by no creed, but rather questioning all, James's outlook upon nature is wide. 16. The greatest number of candidates came up to that examination of any former year. 17. No laws are better than English laws. 18. The ends of a divine and human legislator are too often at variance. 19. My old friend, after having seated himself and trimmed the boat with his coachman, who, being a very sober man,

always serves for ballast on these occasions; we made the best of our way to Vauxhall. 20. He is, perhaps, the first of whom we can say he is a good English writer.

VIII.

1. Politics was too strong for him; he lost his place by it. 2. How much more elder art thou than thy looks? 3. Rich or poor, you have always been good friends with me. 4. Thomas and myself went down town together. 5. Let us turn to Him with an upright heart. Shall we shine as the sun in the Kingdom of our Father; so shall God be our God, and will abide with us forever. 6. It was my intention to have arranged this new version of the Queen's English under the parts of speech. 7. When we see the beautiful variety of colour in the rainbow, we are led to consider its causes. 8. I value you more highly than them. 9. The courage of the soldier and the citizen are essentially different. 10. He felt quite easy in his mind. 11. You can take the book and give it to whoever you like. 12. Solomon, the Son of David, who built the temple, was the wisest monarch the world ever saw. 13. I have lost the purse, though I thought I should have succeeded in keeping it, for it is the third I have bought during the year. 14. According to last accounts, he has arrived safely at his destination. 15. Thinking of them, my pen refuses to write. 16. The historian observes that the wife bringing a dowry is evidence of her freedom. 17. The soldiers walked quickly but orderly. 18. His entertainments were both seldom and shabby. 19. The carriage rides easy. 20. It is not the strength of the hand which holds the torch, but the flame that crowns it, which causes the fuel to blaze.

IX.

1. Both his and their safety were endangered by a residence abroad. 2. Although the review had not commenced, there were already considerable noise and confusion. 3. Neither he nor I have any doubt as to the result. 4. The trade in seal skins is large, but I saw none in crossing; the steamers have frightened them away to more northern and quieter homes. 5. I am he that thou knowest did cause to be destroyed Rome, your city, and slew the Pope and many others, and bare away the reliques that I there found. 6. Being there was such a number there, he was afraid to proceed. 7. If you would be kind enough to inform me of what is the best course to pursue, I should be greatly obliged. 8. Thompson had become very corpulent, previous to the adopting his temperate habits. 9. Send the parcel direct. 10. There were no more than one person in the room. 11. I shall have great pleasure in accepting your invitation. 12. He is senior to me with respect to service. 13. Proposals for a coalition were made by the chief men of either party. 14. He told his father if he did not see him in an hour or so, he thought he had better go back. 15. A beaver is the emblem of Canada. 16. Neither will they be persuaded though one rose from the dead. 17. I never remember seeing you before. 18. The wages is paid every fortnight. 19. Such an occurrence was never remembered to have taken place before in this place. 20. The bread tastes bitter.

X.

1. Compare this angle with that one. 2. I prefer doing this to that. 3. He promised his brother never to forsake his friends. 4. I thought he would have died with grief and vexation. 5. Who is the man said to have

been? 6. As two is to four, so is four to six. 7. Less than a million tons are mined in a year. 8. The putting letters together so as to form words is called spelling. 9. A butcher bought the cows from two men who offered them for sale. The butcher had immediately slaughtered one of the animals, and then took the hide and carcass into the city. On the same day that this took place, the owner traced it to the butcher's possession. 10. He was not clever in business, nor was he clever at learning. 11. He often performs acts quite unworthy of him, and which we cannot but condemn. 12. And you may gather garlands there, would grace a summer queen. 13. We must have a conference in respect to the subject. 14. He is so sick that I often feared he would have died. 15. He or you or I am to go. 16. Bunyan compares the life of Christian with a difficult journey. 17. I only remember to have met with him once before. 18. It would not suit the rules of art nor of my own feelings, to write in this style. 19. A pear tree was planted between each apple tree. 20. Day and night are a consequence of the earth revolving on its axis.

XI.

1. This is the testimony of a man whose strong mind and his intense love for everything Scotch made it especially valuable. 2. Vocal and instrumental music appear on every programme. 3. The words are as follow. 4. The words are as follows. 5. If I had only run the last few yards instead of walked, I would have got there time enough. 6. Somebody spent Sunday in the office, making themselves comfortable. 7. Should the cold continue as intense as to-day, which I hope it may, the skating will be good. 8. The victim was a young man, who, it is alleged, the constable frightened to death by riding him down when under the influence of liquor. 9. Have you ever before seen such a high tower? 10. The exertions of this scholar have done more towards elucidating the difficulties of our language than any other writer on the subject. 11. I was present, though; only I had to leave early. 12. Neither he nor you are meant. 14. There was no stranger in the house save we two. 14. Thrust the lesser half into the fists of the boy. 15. Two spoonfuls of water to one of the medicine is considered enough. 16. I have no other saint than thou to pray to. 17. Thanking my fellow teachers for the kind reception accorded my previous books, this one is submitted with the hopes that it may meet with similar favor. 18. The teacher as well as his pupils were present. 19. A man would not go there except when he thinks he will be welcome. 20. I could not have believed it to be him.

XII.

1. This was surely too slender a thread to trust a business of that weight to. 2. Had I but served my God with half the zeal I served my king, he would not in mine age have left me naked to mine enemies. 3. All instructions, not from the Department, must not be attended to. 4. He was not less anxious to destroy his enemies than his friends. 5. Comparison is correctly, because more convenient, called inflection. 6. He had lost his purse when he was from home. 7. I eat my lunch at noon and I have just eaten my dinner. 8. The darkness is coming on; it is growing cold; our trip was now over. 9. When I left the room, I had not the chance of meeting him. 10. The desire of wealth causes us to fall into temptation, and the designs of the evil one are thus furthered. 11. Scott's works were

the daily food not only of his countrymen but of all educated Europe. 12. Emerson's is one of the best works I ever saw on the subject. 13. Scarcely had he gone when I found my mistake. 14. You know whom it is you thus charge. 15. Now, by His name that I most reverence in Heaven. 16. Not returning home in time for supper, his family became alarmed at his absence. 17. She did not play as well as her sister. 18. There is no fear but that he is innocent. 19. These boys seem to do nothing else than fight.

XIII.

1. It is her talents, not her beauty, that attracts one's attention. 2. He seems to have studied his lessons for to-day. 3. Yet to their general's voice they soon obeyed. 4. The only animal we saw was an opossum which the native discovered and climbed up for. 5. The cat jumped on to the chair. 6. I beg to differ with you. 7. Your opinion is very different to mine. 8. This is none other but the voice of God. 9. He asked his friends if he could call upon them for assistance. 10. What sort of a job did he make of it, think you? 11. He went from one friend to another, asking their advice. 12. I soon found he walked slower than I thought. 13. He caught no fish, and said he would not till it should rain. 14. He hoped every one had been enjoying themselves. 15. His conduct, and what is more, his unjustifiable conduct, have troubled me greatly. 16. Each thought of the other's grief; each prayed for the other rather than for themselves. 17. The general's difficulties were greater than mine in relation to his own operations; mine greater than his in every other respect. 18. The river overflowed on either bank. 19. Yet no sooner does the morning dawn and daylight enter his room, but this strange enchantment vanishes. 20. She asked me to go and see if he was up yet. 21. Have the jury rendered their verdict? 22. It was her firm belief that all unhappy marriages dated only from the wife; and that the coldness as well as the independence, and want of the adoring faculty in women, were the sole causes of matrimonial disagreement. 23. Heaven forbid that I should refuse him, and he a gentleman! 24. My object in this communication is to express a hope that the members may, each as far as lies in his power, exert their influence to obtain its removal.

XIV.

1. I ne'er before, believe me, fair, have ever drawn your mountain air, 'till on the lake's romantic strand, I found a fay in fairyland. 2. He left the blame on some one, I know not who. 3. For boys with hearts as bold as his who kept the bridge so well. 4. There is actually a kind of sacredness in such a man being sent into this earth. 5. It is a game which has been played for untold ages, every man and woman of us being one of the two players in a game of his or her own. 6. There is sometimes as much as two adjectives to a noun. 7. Pleasure had more attraction for him than his friend. 8. I saw him by accident when I was in Toronto, walking down Yonge St. 9. Whoe'er I was, myself would be his wife. 10. O thou my voice inspire, who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire. 11. Many was the consultation he and his friends had. 12. When I spoke to him, I had not the pleasure of reading his book. 13. Which neither listlessness nor mad endeavor, nor man nor boy, nor all that is at enmity with joy, can utterly destroy. 14. He looks like his mother does, but he talks like his father. 15. He was afraid he would be burned. 16. The references will be found useful to the junior student and enable him to obtain an insight into the subject. 17. A second

division of lands followed; and the poet was not only deprived of his estate; but barely escaped with his life when fleeing from the onset of his enemies. 18. Trusting that you will remember us, and write as often as you can spare time, and with best love (in which we all heartily join,) remember me as ever, etc. 19. There are many boys whose fathers and mothers died when they were infants. 20. Of all my rash adventures past, this frantic feat must prove the last.

XV.

1. Nor frequent does the bright oar break the darkening mirror of the lake, until the rocky isle they reach, and moor their shallop on the beach. 2. Four times five is twenty. 3. There is not more than another man would take that much trouble. 4. I am one of those who cannot go when I am not allowed. 5. Nobody knows what it is to lose a friend until they lose him. 6. All that is seen—the world, the Bible, the Church, and man himself—are types. 7. There is no fear of John failing. 8. It was owing to his conduct his father died so soon. 9. The Italian universities were forced to send for their professors from France and Spain. 10. Your company is fairer than honest. 11. There wasn't a man of them hardly but what shunned his company. 12. How old might you be? 13. What shall we say since silent now is he, who, when he spake, all things would silent be. 14. Try and see¹ me next Saturday if you are able to. 15. I like to have my tea good and strong.² 16. Never was boy so harassed or suffered half the pain I have done to-day. 17. I had no idea it was so cold. I had no idea it is so cold. 18. She looks as though she was much displeased. 19. Not on outward charms should a man or woman build their pretensions to please. 20. Either a horse or mare has lost its shoe.

¹ ² The irregularities here are probably due to the analytic tendency.

XVI.

1. Shall there be a God to swear by and none to pray to? 2. Xenophon's sword was first drawn for a Persian prince and last for a Spartan king. 3. A quarter's notice is required previously to the removal of a pupil. 4. The hearing ear and the seeing eye, the Lord hath made even both of them. 5. It was thought to be him that did it. 6. None but the brave deserves the fair. 7. One of them, who was there, said so. 8. There is a way which seemeth right unto a man, but the end thereof are the ways of death. 9. Friend to my life which you did not prolong, the world had wanted many an idle song. 10. Even failure at an examination is better than to copy. 11. To dictate and allow themselves to be dictated to has become natural to the king and his cabinet. 12. I would detain you here some months or two. 13. Who, when he lived, his health and beauty set gloss on the rose, smell on the violet. 14. I have not from your eyes that gentleness as I was wont to have. 15. The objection is frequently made to reading the Bible, that the lessons are read in an indifferent, mechanical, careless style, and therefore they had better not be read; but let the unconscious influence of the teacher's character be free to do its work. 16. We are at the outset met with the special peculiarity that in the case of each of the other three professions it has the exclusive right to say what are to be the terms of admittance. Has this profession any say as to admission? Not a word more than any member of the community. 17. Reproach and everlasting shame, sits on our plumes.

18. Her house, her lands, her love is his alone. 19. Nodding their heads before her goes the merry minstrelsy. 20. I am that Rosamond whom men call fair, if what I was I be.

XVII.

1. I don't know but you might be right. 2. I was disappointed of the book I intended to have read yesterday. 3. Send me word directly you get home. 4. If he would try and do it, he may find it not as simple as he believes it, and wishes me to believe. 5. He is one of the most distinguished scientists who has ever lived. 6. He gave me only two books. 7. It seems that to waylay and to murder the king was the shortest and safest way. 8. We cannot trust them that deceive. 9. There was racing and chasing on Cannobie Lea. 10. He has often asked me what I do when such things have happened. 11. No one can miss him like I do. 12. Any one that thinks so can go if he wants to. 13. This plan has done much to bridge over the gulf between the workingman and his employer, and, indeed, between all classes. 14. He was more than usually excited. 15. Would I had met my dearest foe in heaven, or ever I had seen this day, Horatio! 16. The riches of the temple gradually disappeared, but by whom or when is not known. 17. The country was divided into counties, and the counties into districts. 18. Poor is our sacrifice whose eyes are lighted from above. 19. He delivered the letter, which, when Mr. Thornhill had read it, he said that all submission was too late. 20. The populace were now melted into tears, for he told ever so many lies.

XVIII.

1. He never doubted but that you have been long gone. 2. Some men are too ignorant to be humble, without which there is no docility and no progress. 3. The nations not so blest as thee must in their turn to tyrants fall. 4. I have not wept this forty years. 5. It is now more than a year since he has heard from home. 6. It is better to fall among vultures than flatterers; these devour only the dead; those, the living. 7. He refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, charm he ever so wisely. 8. He is none wiser for all he has learned. 9. They called out one to another. 10. What was not my amazement at seeing him! 11. He thought that none were lost. 11. On what shelf did you say the book is? 12. You'll not find it there, or I am mistaken. 13. Hardly had he taken his leave than the father presented himself with the money. 14. He maintained that he had not left the country because the police was after him. 15. I will try to see you to-morrow. 16. Both Misses Brown came to the door. 17. There are a sort of men whose visages do cream and mantle like a standing pond. 18. The climate of Los Angeles is perhaps the most genial and the best suited to invalids, of any other spot in California. 19. I hate him for he is a Christian, but more for that, in low simplicity, he lends out money gratis. 20. He saw the reason why witchcraft was ridiculed was because it was a phase of the miraculous. 21. A jury consists of twelve persons with a foreman. 22. He thought that each of us can decide according to our knowledge.

XIX.

1. Still, it was on the whole satisfactory to his feeling to take the directest means of seeing Dorothea, rather than to use any other device to do so. 2. It lies five fathoms deep. 3. This paper is good enough for any book that

has, is, or shall be printed. 4. Our eleven beat the other by an innings and ten runs. 5. Is there any chance of such a thing's happening? 6. He seemed rather to aim at gaining the doubtful than crushing the hostile. 7. I meant to have written you. 8. The suddenness of the catastrophe prevented him doing so. 9. Thou hast protected us and shall we not honor you? 10. The chief ruler is styled a governor-general. 11. He lives at his father's, the town councillor's. 12. I am to blame not you. 13. Art thou proud yet? Ay, that I am not thee. 14. Neither the brother nor the sister are remarkable for their good looks. 15. Well is him that hath found prudence. 16. More than one boy felt proud of his success. 17. There is scarcely a publication which issues from the press, that does not show the same defect as I object to here. 18. We know who it was who first called us to the work. 19. Several people spoke to us. 20. Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life.

XX.

1. Wanted a gardener and coachman who must both have good references. 2. Nobody ever before put so much of themselves into the work. 3. Yonder woman was the wife of a certain learned man, English by name, but who had long dwelt in Amsterdam. 4. He managed somehow or another to pay his debts. 5. The gold and silver collected at the mine are sent to the deposit banks. 6. The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny. 7. He was not clever in books or in business. 8. He arrived at, and quickly entered, the door. 9. Two days was needed to get ready for business. 10. We saw them hanging by myriads, one to another. 11. Lady, you are the cruel'st she alive if you will lead these graces to the grave and leave the world no copy. 12. Thou great first cause, least understood, who all my sense confined, to know but this that Thou art good, and that myself am blind. 13. Two pounds is as much as I can give for it. 14. You will not find it there, I don't think. 15. He hadn't ought to act so. 16. I labor for peace; but when I speak unto them thereof, they make them ready to battle. 17. I wonder what I would have said yesterday to any man that had told me so. 18. Sleep, Ellen, folded in Emilia's arms; Emilia fairer than all else but thou; for thou art fairer than all else that is. 19. No small part of the reading public does not buy books; it is content with the newspapers and magazines. 20. A laggard in love and a dastard in war was to wed the fair Ellen of young Lochinvar.

XXI.

1. He maintained that Plutarch's Lives are being bound in three volumes. 2. In no case are the writers so apt to err as in the position of the word *only*. 3. So I were out of prison and kept sheep, I should be merry as the day is long. 4. Him I accuse, the city ports by this hath entered. 5. Do me the justice to tell me what I have a title to be acquainted with, and which I am certain to know more truly from you than from others. 6. She had not yet listened patiently to his heart beats, but only felt that her own was beating violently. 7. I have made no addition to it, nor shall I ever. 8. No one had as yet exhibited the structure of the human kidneys, Vesalius having only examined them in dogs. 9. It was his horse and not himself who was killed. 10. And he said unto his sons, "Saddle me the ass." So they saddled him the ass. 11. He said he believed that honesty was in that case the best policy. 12. This is he, my master said, despised the fair Athenian

maid. 13. He was shot by a secretary under notice to quit, with whom he was finding fault, very fortunately without serious results. 14. The then parliament were in favor of the bill, and it accordingly passed it. 15. I know thee of what force thou art to hold the costliest love in fee. 16. On attempting to extract the ball, the patient began to sink. 17. He is a very troublesome fellow this, as ever I met with. 18. There was no character created by him into which life and reality were not thrown with such vividness that it did not seem to his readers the thing actually done. 19. Some twenty men appeared at the door. 20. In most states a rise in rents and in wages have been found to go together.

XXII.

1. If any of you lack wisdom, let him ask of God. 2. None of them was cleansed, saving Naaman the Syrian. 3. There is no country in which wealth is as sensible of its obligations as our own. 4. Riti was one of those who eat white bread or brown, whichever can be got easiest. 5. The Prince was apprehensive that Waverly, if set at liberty, might have resumed his intention of returning to England. 6. The perfect tense and imperfect participle ought not to be confounded. 7. The more you stroke a cat, the higher he raises his back. 8. There are who ask not if thine eye be on them. 9. Let a gallows be made twenty cubits high. 10. The same stone which the builders refused is become the head stone in the corner. 11. No one doubted that he keeps his word. 12. I did not sing yesterday as I wished. 13. I have long ago learned to like nothing but what you do. 14. A good deal of talk was going on about me. 15. He has by some strange magic arrived at the value of half a plum, as the citizens call a hundred thousand pounds. 16. My Christian and my surname begin and end with the same letter. 17. Jumping down from the table, he struck him a sounding blow. 18. Thou lovest, but ne'er knew love's sad satiety. 19. These two properties seem essential to wit, especially the last of them. 19. After the most straitest sect of our religion. 20. I shall go now and I will meet you in an hour.

XXIII.

1. I will speak and the word that I shall speak shall be performed. 2. And while his harp responsive rung, 'twas thus the latest minstrel sung. 3. He makes as many mistakes, if not indeed even more mistakes, than you. 4. He walks like me but he acts as his father has always done. 5. I will have mercy and not sacrifice. 6. And many a holy text around she strews that teach the rustic moralist to die. 7. I grieve much for his loss. 8. Potatoes can scarcely be got now at any rate. 9. Pursued on all sides, he was forced to surrender at last. 10. I will go when I want to, not a minute sooner. 11. The greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night. 12. Everything is in thorough working order. 13. In that he died, he died unto sin once. 14. I beg to enquire if I can go home. 15. You were best hang yourself. 16. This is a matter of the last importance. 17. Loth to enrich me with too quick replies, by little and by little, he drops his lies. 18. He ran as though it were for his life. 19. I may see you to-morrow and shall then bid you good-bye. 20. His is not such a good risk as I had hoped for.

XXIV.

1. This is the bush under whose shade we sat yesterday. 2. One should take good care of his health. 3. As soon as he had ridden about a mile his

horse went lame. 4. It was the most amiable, if the least dignified, of all the squabbles which have preceded it. 5. At Talavera the English and French troops for a moment suspended the conflict. 6. I can tell you this much, my man. 7. Now I would have thought that these were just the people who would have been the most welcome. 8. That did him no more good than his afterwards trying to pacify the barons. 9. He is more broad than tall. 10. He is not a man to tamely submit to the threat of dismissal. 11. Much pains was taken with him. 12. I hope you will excuse my coming here. 13. I do not doubt that he is ill. 14. I do not doubt but he is ill. 15. I do not doubt but that he is ill. 16. Of all men else have I avoided thee. 17. I am no orator, as Brutus is; but as you know me all, a plain, blunt man, that love my friend. 18. While walking along the road, an idea suddenly occurred to me. 19. What should this mean? 20. 'Twere good you do so much for charity.

XXV.

1. They set him free without his ransom paid. 2. Heaven would that she those gifts should have, and I to live and die her slave. 3. She bade me if I had a friend that loved her, I should but teach him how to tell my story. 4. So please him come into this place. 5. Returning were as tedious as go o'er. 6. When a superlative is used, the class between which the comparison is made and which is introduced by *of* should always include the thing compared: as, "Gladstone is the greatest of English statesmen," or "Gladstone is the greatest English statesman." 7. The sign *to* should not be used for a full infinitive unless the verb in the same form can be supplied from the preceding part of the sentence: as, "You never wrote me you ought to" is wrong, since it is incorrect to say "You ought to wrote." 8. The perfect infinitive is used when the act spoken of is regarded as completed before the time expressed by the governing verb; as, "I hoped to have gone before the meeting." 9. We could quote from no better authority and we could quote no truer statement than that "the superior vitality of total abstainers" is well known to insurance experts. 10. Art any more than a steward. 11. Thy currish spirit govern'd a wolf, who hanged for human slaughter, even from the gallows did his fell soul fleet. 12. Therefore they thought it good you were at play. 13. Here boldly spread they hands, no venom'd word dares blister them, no slimy snail dare creep. 14. Well, sit we down, and let us hear Bernardo speak of this. 15. I told him of myself, which was as much as to have asked him pardon. 16. Eleven hours I spent to write it over. 17. Thou had'st need to send for more money. 18. That thou shalt see the difference of our spirits, I pardon thee thy life before thou ask it. 19. I saw him not these many years, and yet I know 'tis he. 20. Judges and Senators have been bought with gold; esteem and love were never to be sold.

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cast . . .	125	hold . . .	129	shave . . .	130	tear . . .	128
catch . . .	125	hurt . . .	125	shear . . .	128	tell . . .	125
chide . . .	128	keep . . .	124	shed . . .	125	think . . .	125
choose . . .	128	kneel . . .	124	shine . . .	128	thrive . . .	128
cleave . . .	128	knit . . .	125	shoe . . .	124	throw . . .	129
climb . . .	128	know . . .	129	shoot . . .	128	thrust . . .	125
cling . . .	127	lead . . .	125	show . . .	130	tread . . .	128
clothe . . .	126	lean . . .	124	shred . . .	125	wake . . .	128
come . . .	129	leap . . .	124	shrink . . .	127	wash . . .	130
cost . . .	125	learn . . .	123	shrive . . .	128	wax . . .	130
creep . . .	124	leave . . .	124	shut . . .	125	wear . . .	128
crow . . .	129	lend . . .	124	sing . . .	127	weave . . .	128
cut . . .	125	let . . .	129	sink . . .	127	weep . . .	124
dare . . .	133	lie . . .	129	sit . . .	129	wend . . .	124
deal . . .	124	light . . .	125	slay . . .	129	wet . . .	125
dig . . .	127	lose . . .	124	sleep . . .	124	whet . . .	125
do . . .	131	make . . .	126	slide . . .	128	will . . .	132
draw . . .	129	may . . .	132	sling . . .	127	win . . .	127
dream . . .	124	mean . . .	124	slink . . .	127	wind . . .	128
drink . . .	127	melt . . .	130	slit . . .	125	wis . . .	131
drive . . .	128	meet . . .	125	smell . . .	123	wit . . .	131
dwell . . .	123	methinks . . .	125	smite . . .	128	wont . . .	131
eat . . .	129	mote . . .	132	sow . . .	130	work . . .	125
engrave . . .	130	mow . . .	130	speak . . .	123	worth . . .	131
fall . . .	129	must . . .	132	speed . . .	125	wring . . .	127
feed . . .	125	need . . .	126	spell . . .	123	write . . .	128
feel . . .	124	ought . . .	132	spend . . .	124		





